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## REVIEWS

*The Chinese: a general Description of the Empire of China and its Inhabitants.* By J. F. Davis, Esq., F.R.S. 2 vols. Knight.

*Edinburgh Cabinet Library.—China.* Vols. I. & II. Oliver & Boyd.

*The British Relations with China, &c.* By Sir George T. Staunton. Lloyd.

PUBLIC attention is just now strongly directed to the state of our commercial relations with China; the restrictions to which British merchants are subjected, and the apparent hostility of the government, have been described in every possible form, and the remedies suggested are nearly as various as the evils complained of, and include both extremes, from war to submission. It is commonly asserted, that such a state of things is unparalleled; but calm inquiry would show, that ancient history, and modern annals, offer many similar instances of jealous exclusion, arising, we suspect, from the fear which a conquering nation has of strangers inciting the oppressed natives to seek new protectors. When the Parthians subdued Persia and Babylonia, they not only discouraged, but absolutely destroyed, the East India trade, which Alexander had taken so much pains to establish; and their hostility to merchants and caravans was greatly increased, when the conquests of Rome brought them into close contact with that crafty and ambitious power. Spain, through similar jealousy, watched, with equal anxiety, her South American States; and the time is not beyond the memory of man, when the appearance of a Frenchman in India would have been the theme of as many despatches to the government, at Calcutta, as are now sent to the court of Pekin when a stray vessel appears in a prohibited port. The power of the Manchew Tartars is based on the belief that it is irresistible; and they know that, were this opinion shaken, as it assuredly would be were the Chinese people permitted to have free intercourse with foreigners, a revolution would be the inevitable consequence.

The policy of the Manchews has been denounced mischievous and tyrannical: but is it not the obvious result of the circumstances in which they are placed? These Tartars are "in the ascendant," and when or where are we to find an ascendancy party willing to sacrifice power for such abstract matters as justice and public utility? It is true, that oppression is about the most expensive luxury in which a caste or a nation can indulge; but it is equally true, that the possessors of power very rarely count the cost of their barbaric "pride of place," and that a like disinclination to sober reason, and the figures of arithmetic, are usually manifested by such parties, as well in Europe as in Asia. The Manchews have not only principle and precedent to help them to a justification, but they have been warned of probable danger by a very recent, and somewhat startling example. A century has scarcely elapsed since the possessions of the English in India were just the number of cubic feet and inches contained in the Blackhole of Calcutta—now a company of British merchants wields the destinies of an empire more than rivalling any one of the five great monarchies of antiquity; and we are not quite sure that, had there been a Chinese Company, as well as an East India Company, our countrymen would not,

long ere this, have changed places with the Manchews, and the court of Pekin have been just as insignificant as the court of Delhi. We shall not discuss the question, whether such a consummation would be advantageous to us British, and beneficial to the Chinese, but take leave to ask, is it one that the Manchews could contemplate with anything like partiality or favour? Luckily, there is no Chinese Company to run a race of conquest with neighbour John; and the English in the East profess an absolute horror of any new acquisition of territory; but it were not very extraordinary if the Emperor of Pekin should not place implicit reliance on these professions, when he remembers how recently we became his neighbours in Arracan and Bengal.

We have made these preliminary remarks, because, plain and obvious as are the facts, they are either cursorily glanced at, or altogether omitted in the numerous pamphlets recently published on the state of our commercial relations at Canton; and because a knowledge of them is necessary to a right understanding of the conduct of the Chinese authorities, and of the peculiar position in which the British are placed with respect to them. They show that the viceroys and magistrates of the Celestial Empire may be influenced by other motives than the mere wantonness of power—that they have, at least, as plausible an excuse as our fathers and grandfathers had for fettering the trade of our colonies, and that we Englishmen are not exactly in the best position "to give," as has been gravely proposed, "a great moral lesson" to the Tartar tyrants of Eastern Asia.

The history of the British trade tends further to exonerate the Chinese authorities from much of the blame which has been cast upon them. It began well; the settlement, formed in 1602 at Bantam, on the northern coast of Java, was conveniently situated for intercourse with China, and four large junks annually arrived there, laden with various commodities. Had the trade been in the hands of private individuals instead of a great mercantile company, the obvious course of policy would have been to encourage the market at Bantam; love of gain and commercial rivalry would soon have increased the number of junks, and commerce would have been permanently based on the mutual wants of both nations. But Associations are apt to put aside the dictates of prudence. Courten's company, which had been established as a rival to the old company, in the days when charters and monopolies, instead of places and pensions, were the rewards of court favourites, sent a small squadron to Canton, under Captain Weddell, in 1637, to open a direct trade with China. The Portuguese, at Macao, naturally dreaded the appearance of such formidable rivals, and they secretly instigated the Chinese to exclude the heretics from their country, for it was the fashion of those days, as well as of later times, to make religion a cloak and excuse for selfishness; and had the English been first in the field, they would, no doubt, have hinted to the Chinese the great danger of intercourse with Papists. Weddell negotiated with the mouths of his cannon, and obtained favourable terms. The long wars with the Dutch, and the embarrassments resulting from the contest between the King and Parliament, seem to have prevented the English mer-

chants from following up Weddell's success, and it was not until 1677 that a factory was established at the port of Amoy, and a regular intercourse opened. This factory, however, was resigned, after the conquest of China by the Manchews, in consequence of the vexatious regulations and restrictions imposed upon the trade by the Tartars; but there is reason to suspect, that for some portion of these burdens the English had to blame their own government. In 1689, the tea trade, then in its infancy, was severely checked by the imposition of the enormous duty of 5s. a pound on its importation. It was natural enough that the Chinese authorities should follow so lucrative an example, and they therefore placed a very heavy duty on its exportation. Finding the consumption of the article not seriously diminished, they added other exactions, which went near to destroy the trade altogether.

The Hong confederacy, that great plague of Canton commerce, first commenced in 1740; but might not this mischievous system have been copied from a European example? In fact, was not the Hong an humble imitation of the East India Company? Nobody, said the English, shall trade with the Chinese but the Company—nobody, said the Chinese, shall trade with the English but the Hong merchants; and assuredly Chinese merchants had as good a right to combine as their brethren in England. In 1757 appeared the edict of Kien-long, strictly limiting European intercourse to the port of Canton; an unjust and impolitic edict, but not more so than our own restriction of Chinese intercourse to the port of London. About the same time we hear of the first disputes respecting the degrading ceremony of the Ko-tou. The pertinacity with which the Manchews demand reverential prostration from strangers, arises, we incline to believe, from the circumstance of their being a conquering and ruling faction, whose power is based on opinion, and they cannot afford to abate any form by which that opinion is maintained. An erudite historian of the Irish insurrection of 1798, states, as a proof of the great progress which treasonable principles had made in Munster, that peasants would pass a gentleman on the road without pulling off their hats. If the omission of an Irish Ko-tou be treason, we may surely pardon the Manchews for making the same thing a high misdemeanour.

On reading the history of the intercourse between the English residents and the Chinese, we cannot but feel that the conduct of our countrymen has not been always such as prudence would have dictated. Englishmen in China seem to oscillate between temerity and timidity. To the former, perhaps, they are inclined, from their experience in India, where a Hindú bows to a European as to a deity: but we are at a loss to account for the latter. It is beyond question, that our national character suffered in 1808, when, without leave asked, Macao was occupied by a British military force, which was subsequently withdrawn, under circumstances that justified the Chinese in erecting a trophy—though the firmness of Sir George Staunton, in 1814, when a dispute arose respecting the capture of an American vessel within the limits of the Chinese territory, tended to remove the consequences of the former rash proceeding. Again the national character suffered, when Lord Napier

proceeded, in defiance of the known law, from Macao to Canton, without permission, and then, as if startled at his temerity, consented to return at the dictation of the Chinese authorities.

From all that we have yet heard, we incline to a belief, that the China trade will flourish best by the British government avoiding all interference with it, naval, military, or diplomatic; that it is a trade which has increased, is increasing, and is capable of great extension; and, finally, that the obstacles to its success, the pride, the corruption, and the avarice of the Manchew ascendancy, cannot last. The proof of these propositions will lead us into an examination of the character of China and the Chinese, which we shall defer to another occasion.

In the meantime, we must say a word respecting the publications before us. Mr. Davis was long a resident in China, and is thoroughly acquainted with the language and literature of the Celestial Empire. He is already well known to the world as the translator of several popular Chinese novels and dramas; his work, consequently, is much richer in original information than the compilation published in the Edinburgh Cabinet Library. There is, also, great animation in his pictures of society, and much vivid colouring in his descriptions; and his account of the difference between the legislative and the executive government of the Chinese, has novelty and value. On the other hand, the volumes in the Cabinet Library display more artistic skill in their arrangement, and surpass those of Mr. Davis in their scientific departments.

The little tract, by Sir George Staunton, is by far the most able we have seen on the subject of our present relations with China. The writer takes a sober statesman-like view of the question; and, if it may be permitted to us, without presumption, to say so, enforces the opinions we lately expressed, with all the weight of one speaking from experience.

*The History of Audley End; to which are appended Notices of the Town and Parish of Saffron Walden, in the County of Essex.* By Richard Lord Braybrooke. S. Bentley.

Our first glance at this handsome quarto, with its pleasure-ground of margin, and its luxury of type thickly studded with illustrations, led us back to the days of aristocratic book-making, when commoners dared, upon occasions, hazard the portly craft of quartos on the waters of literature; whereas, now, even the titled rarely put to sea in such trim yachts and gilded shallops. A second glance, by depriving the illustrative portion of the book of half its novelty, disenchanted us. We perceived that most of the portraits were but impressions of worn-out plates, formerly published, whether publicly or privately it matters not, and executed in a style of art, so coarse as to preclude their admission into any of our present shilling periodicals. Our third glance, however, comprehended the preface, and upon remarking therein the extreme good-humour and courtesy of the noble author—a stranger guest in these days of cheap literature and clever art combined—we resolved, if possible, to catch the mantle of his urbanity, and to meet him as becomes his own breeding, in a spirit to be pleased with services however small, and grateful for information pleasantly conveyed—though, like the mutton in the soup at Milnwood, it floats about, one solitary shred of meat in an ocean of lukewarm water.

Critics have, ere now, been complained of as having sneered, when they have only done their poor best to beguile their dull and weary way—the “*crambe iterum repetita*” of their labours, by the use of a simile. We protest, therefore, that it is not our intention to be sarcastic in the present

instance. We have laughed, it is true, upon occasions, at the musty, rusty nothings which antiquarians sometimes carry about in processions, bidding us honour them as precious relics, and make genuflexion, but we have kindly leaning towards antiquarianism, and topographical works, especially when the places they concern are linked with the high names of England:—we have a fancy, too, for architecture, particularly for that of the quaint age, which, by mingling different styles, has set modern architects to puzzle out systems, and, with infinite care and calculation, to jumble together huge enormities of stone and mortar, under pretence of imitating the spontaneous incongruities of their forefathers. We have a love, too, as all the world knows, for hunting out historical facts, through those little records of the traffickings and money-changings of daily life—of feasts and funerals—of apprenticeships and markets—which are to be found among the family registers and official documents of our ancestors, and to which all must resort who would know old times as a living and breathing creature, and not a starved anatomy. For these reasons, the book before us is, to us, a pleasant book, though we could have been contented with its antiquarianism, its descriptions, and its extracts from old rolls and parochial archives, in a more compendious form; but, as we know not how far our readers may share our individual fancies, we shall be somewhat brief in our notice.

The first portion relates to the different families by whom Audley End, and the estates surrounding, were successively possessed; it calls for no remark. When “bluff King Hal” ordained the dissolution of religious houses, some of the spoil, Walden Abbey among the rest, fell into the hands of Sir Thomas Audley, created afterwards Lord Howard de Walden, and remained in his family for many generations. It may be thought worthy of commemoration, that Lord Howard of Effingham (whose name is written in England’s naval annals,) appears to have been among the first who spent large sums of money in beautifying the mansion, afterwards a place of such note for its magnificence, as to have furnished one king (James the First,) with a peg whereupon to hang a bitter insinuation, that “the house was too large for a king, but too small for a lord treasurer,” and to have served as a temporary residence to another, Charles the Second; and to have been described by Evelyn and Pepys, and Cosmo of Tuscany, in his travels, and St. Evremond in his *spirituel* letters. There is, however, but little original information here given relating to its several possessors, except a passing mention of an event or two not to be separated from the mass of pedigree-work wherein they are set, without more labour than they are worth. We confess that the story of the stone and mortar is to us more interesting than the genealogical details; perhaps from having in our very early days, fed our fancies, then unused to the realities of architecture, upon “the prospect” of the building, in its old estate, as delineated by the fantastic and ingenious Sir Henry Winstanley, and admired its bell-towers and angular oriel, and courts and porches, none the less for having read that they were “built with Spanish gold,”—little dreaming that this only implied an accusation of bribery and corruption, brought against the Countess of Suffolk. But this is trifling; and it would perhaps be more consistent with our usual sober conciseness, simply to have said, that the description of the house is full and satisfactory, and pleasantly helped out by drawings from the hand of Chantrey, Blore and Buckler; the wood vignettes too are easy and spirited.

Some notices of the parish of Saffron Walden form the third, and to us the more interesting

portion of the volume; not because we prefer the borough to the manor-house, and would rather hear about almshouses and hostels, than oaken galleries and family pictures; but for the sake of the extracts from the parish registers, which Lord Braybrooke has given copiously. Here are a few:—

“1611, May 12, Martha Warde, a young maid, coming from Chelmsford on a carte, was overwhelmed and smothered with certain clothes which were in the carte, and was buried here.

“1622, Sep. 4.—Buried a poore man, brought by Little Chesterford constables, to be examined by the justice; the justice being a hunting, the poore man died before his coming home from hunting.

“1716, Nov. 18.—The ouldie girl from the work-house buried.”

The corporation accounts, too, contain some singular items: we have entries of money paid for saffron, given to the “Queen’s (Elizabeth) attorney,” and of 2s. to my Lord Stafford’s players; a large *honorarium* of 10s. having been paid for the mediation of the Earl of Suffolk’s secretary; and the sum of 1l. 9s. 3d. for “setting up the cuckoo’s stool;” 4d. “for nailing up the quaker’s door twice,” and 10s. for “rent of the mountebank.”

Having now fairly indicated the character and pretensions of the work, we take leave of it, that we may attend to more important matters.

*Narrative of a Journey to the Zoolu Country, in South Africa.* By Captain Allen F. Gardiner, R.N. W. Crofts.

This singular and entertaining volume is the offspring of piety and the love of adventure. We will not go the length of saying that its author was impelled by

The itch of picture in the front.  
With bays and wicked rhyme upon’t—  
but certainly we are justified in hinting, that the ambition of visiting a somewhat remarkable people, and of writing thereon a sprightly volume, half verse, half prose, appears to have occupied too much of the perspective of our author’s design. However, here are his motives set forth in his own words: “His single aim, he trusts, has been the glory of God, and if, after the indulgent perusal of the facts he shall narrate, a more ardent zeal for the instruction of our fellow-creatures in the truths of Christianity, and a more sincere personal devotion of time and energy to the cause of Christian Missions, especially in Southern Africa, shall be induced, he shall deem that he has not written in vain, but thank God, and take courage.”

Now, no one who reads Captain Gardiner’s volume, can doubt of the kindness of his intentions and purity of his motives, so far as the volatile and rebellious elements of human motives (which defy all hermetical sealing,) can subsist in perfect purity. But still, to travel post-haste to the country of the Amazula, and then, having obtained leave to preach there, to travel as rapidly back again to London, sending a volume to press on the day of arrival, does not appear to be the best practical mode of benefiting the heathen. The great quantity of verse too, which occupies our author’s pages, awakens criticism; and criticism, impatient of being duped, loves to raise the veil of sanctity. The making of rhymes and verses is, after all, but an exercise of mental ingenuity. The sackcloth of prose is the appropriate garb of practical piety. Verse does not always raise its subject; nay, when trusting too much to the intrinsic elevation of its theme, it very easily sinks (as our author must have often experienced) into mere deggerl. In fine, however willing we might be to accord the praise of intellectual power to those, in whom devotional feelings kindle the flame of true poetry, yet we could not conscientiously recommend to the de-



vout such a dangerous idolatry as the worship of the Muses; and above all, we consider the disposition to luxuriate in poetical effusions, as indicative of a temperament particularly ill-suited to missionary labours.

Civilized society in the 19th century can judge "the cause of Christian missions," by the testimony of long experience. There is nothing more difficult to be explained, at first sight, than the little progress made by Christian missionaries, under the actual circumstances of the Christian world. But a little reflection and an intimate acquaintance with South Africa, where the means and appliances of Missionary Societies are completely brought forward, under the most favourable circumstances, will suffice to elucidate the matter. The zeal of the missionary, from obvious causes, too often borders on fanaticism; ignorant of human nature, he never makes a compromise with inveterate habits or opinions, but insists upon the savage's becoming at once a starched puritan. He deals at the same time so exclusively in dark and incomprehensible dogmas, that, to the shrewder part of his barbarian audience, his doctrine seems to belong to the common category of superstition. Wherever in South Africa (as for example at Litakoo, Griquatown, Gendenthal, the Rat-river, &c.), the missionaries have laboured to improve the social condition of the people under their care, religion has gained by such improvement; but wherever fiery zeal or an ascetic spirit have gone to work, they have compelled the people to harden their hearts against the truth. The readers of Captain Gardiner's volume will therefore do well to bear in mind, that for the conversion of the heathen we have everything to hope, not from the inspired portion of regenerate sinners, but from the calm, sober-minded, benevolent, and patient missionary.

We shall now proceed with our author's narrative. He sailed from Spithead on the 26th of August, 1834, destined apparently, from the first, for the country of the Amazûla; among his fellow passengers was a Mr. Berkin, a Polish gentleman, who, with the wreck of his property, was proceeding as a settler to New South Wales, but who subsequently changed his resolution and accompanied our author to Natal. Little time was lost by our author at Cape Town; expedition was his object; he therefore mounted at once on horseback, and dashed off to the frontier, a distance of 600 miles. He arrived there just as the war was on the eve of breaking out. The Caffers, as it appears from the following passage, made no attempts to cloak their ill-humour.

"Many of the expressions which were uttered were sufficiently ominous, and here for the first time we were informed by them of the awkward posture of affairs on the frontier. 'One of our chiefs,' they exclaimed, 'Tchali's brother, has been killed by the white men, and we are resolved that no more white men shall enter our country; those who are now here shall remain, but not one more shall come in!'—intimating that they would murder all now within their territory. One angry word at this moment would have been fatal to us all. As a dernier resort, and to eke out the time till the waggons were ready, I proposed that they should treat us with a war song, with the promise of some tobacco at the conclusion. This happily had the desired effect; while it embodied the current of their feelings, it acted at the same time like a safety-valve: they stormed and raved, and to the extent of their lungs declared that

No white man shall drink our milk.

No white man shall eat the bread of our children.

Ho-how—Ho-how—Ho-how.

This complimentary couplet was so often and so vehemently repeated, that ample time was afforded for inspanning the oxen of both waggons, and on the first glimpse of the tobacco their ire was so much subdued that they sullenly said that we might pass, but we were the last that should. During all this time the crowd had been increasing, and when we crossed the

river there could not have been less than two or three hundred men, besides women; it was one of those merciful escapes in which the hand of a gracious God is so eminently conspicuous, and for which we have great and lasting cause to be thankful."

Through the country of the Amakosa, our author travelled with ox-waggons, but tiring of such slow progress, and perhaps not duly appreciating its sureness, he thought proper to hurry forward on horseback, and as he had to cross some hundred rivers great and small, before he reached Natal, it required not a little courage as well as strength to accomplish the journey. At length he reached the settlement, half famished, and thoroughly drenched. In little more than a month he had travelled 900 miles from Cape Town, and now, after one day's rest he set out again on his journey. A march of 70 miles brought him to the frontiers of the Zûla country. But we shall hasten to conduct him to the capital.

"When about half way, a petty chief arrived with orders to conduct me to the capital, and to kill a beast for us at the first place where he should meet us. Dingam had expressed his desire that I should proceed, saying, that 'I was his white man, and must make haste.' I shall now proceed at once to my first view of Unkûnglôve on the afternoon of the 10th. This was obtained from a rocky hill, covered with aloes and mimosas, intermixed with several large cauliflower-shaped euphorbia trees, growing to the height of sixty or seventy feet. Having descended to a beautiful spot, a continuation of the same ridge to which I had pushed forward, for the sake of quietly enjoying a scene, to me so fraught with interest, I dismounted under a wooded knoll, whence the circular fence of the town appeared like a distant race-course on the left, while a range of rugged mountains, one remarkably table-topped, rising towards the north, hemmed in the prospect on the opposite side. \* \*

"We soon after entered the town, and on application to the principal Indooa (Umbhella) two huts not far from his own dwelling were appointed, into one of which I was not sorry to creep, after the fatigues of the journey, having walked and ridden alternately since leaving the Tugala.

"A bundle of imphi and a large bowl of ôatchualla (native beer) was sent to my hut by order of Dingam, and a messenger soon after signified his wish to see me. Crossing the area of the circular town, accompanied by the chief who had been despatched by Dingam to conduct me to the capital, we were desired to sit a short distance from the fence which surrounds the Issigôrdlo (or palace). After a little pause the bust only of a very stout personage appeared above the fence, which I was soon informed was the despot himself; he eyed me for a considerable time with the utmost gravity without uttering a word; at last pointing to an ox that had been driven near, he said, 'There is the beast I give you to slaughter,' and on this important announcement he disappeared."

Dingam, or, as our author writes the name, Dingarn, soon grew intimate with "his white man," but he gave little attention to the topic which Captain Gardiner was most anxious to urge on him, and seemed to think that his people could not be taught. A residence of some weeks in the capital of the Amazûla, effected nothing for the cause of missions, nor did it afford a sufficient opportunity of observing the domestic economy and manners of the people, the capital being in fact a camp from which young children altogether, and women in a great measure, are excluded. Here however is a sample of camp cheer:

"In these military towns the whole food of the soldiers, consisting of ôatchualla (beer) in the morning, and beef in the evening, is provided at the King's cost, and partaken of in public. It is no unfrequent thing to see a string of thirty or forty women proceeding to the Issigôrdlo, with bowls of ôatchualla on their heads, singing as they go; these are delivered to servants appointed, and soon after set before the assembled crowd, who, passing them from one to the other, empty them on the spot. But the evening meal is the most characteristic, and which, from the situation of my hut near one of their feeding

places, I had the most frequent opportunities of witnessing. Every regiment is divided into sections, and over each of them is an officer appointed, whose particular charge are the shields and the distribution of meat, of which he is the carver. The beer is always drunk in the area included within the inner fence, and often in the presence of the King; but, for the supper, every section is separately collected in some convenient spot in that quarter, within the fences. The meat is generally stewed in a large black earthen bowl with a smaller one inverted, and cemented round the top to prevent the steam from escaping; but with all this, and notwithstanding it may have been cooking during the greater part of the day, it is generally so tough, that my teeth could make but little impression upon the pieces which I now and then attempted by way of experiment. It is usually dark before their repasts are ready, when the meat is brought upon a mat about two feet square, and placed upon the ground, round which the whole party thickly crowd in a dense circle, often two or three deep. The carver then, with an assegai head upon a short stick, which constitutes his knife, apportions rations to every second or third man, who, in his turn, divides it with his collateral neighbours, by the joint effort of their teeth; the recipient being always privileged to the first bite. So positive is the labour which is necessary before they can venture to swallow these tough morsels, that the operation is distinctly audible at a considerable distance; and when the whole is devoured (for the word 'eat' is too mild an expression for the operation, which is over in a few minutes), the whole body becomes a convenient napkin, and is plentifully besmeared with the fat and grease which adhere to their hands and lips, while the most thrifty take this opportunity of refurbishing the brass which encircles their throat and arms."

As dancing is, next to beef-eating, the chief occupation of the Amazûla in time of peace, it is fit that it be described:—

"But it is now time to speak of the graces. The new moon had already appeared, and preparation was made for a grand dance, a continuation of those which had commenced at the in-gathering, early in the preceding month. For two or three days previously, a number of boys had been assembled, to collect very small pebbles, which were afterwards placed within the vacant cocoon of a winged insect of the beetle kind, striped yellow and black, frequently adhering to the mimosa trees; several of these strung together were worn at the ancles by the dancers, and made a jingling noise, which was not unpleasant. Some preliminary exercises having been gone through, by way of practice, the whole of the male population, now swelled to about 1000, arranged themselves in a ring three deep; the women, in ranks of about twenty, forming a close phalanx in the centre, on a spot at a little distance without the town. The King, in his dancing attire, soon after made his appearance; his women, dressed out in their best, having preceded him, and fallen into their proper places in the centre of the ring. I waited near the gate, for the purpose of accompanying him and witnessing his reception, which was enthusiastic, all voices being raised at his approach, to utter the mystical 'Byâte,' with other appropriate epithets. Having but once before seen Dingam without his cloak, it was with the greatest difficulty that I could refrain from laughing outright. Of all the grotesque figures, either in print or in *proprio perando*, his equal I never saw, though he bore the nearest resemblance to Falstaff of any I could recollect. Tall, corpulent, and fleshy, with a short neck, and a heavy foot, he was decked out as a harlequin, and, carried away by the excitement of the moment, seemed almost prepared to become one. He has a good ear and a correct taste, at least in these matters, and had his figure but accorded with his equipment, he would have carried the palm in the dance, which he entered into with some zest, and certainly sustained his part with much natural grace, and, for so heavy a man, with no ordinary ease and agility. The songs which are sung on these occasions are chiefly of his own composition, and are varied every year; in fact, the dancing is but the accompaniment of the song, and stands in the place of music, of which they have none that deserves the name. Each man is provided

with a short stick, knobbed at the end, and it is by the direction he gives to this, the motion of his other hand, and the turns of his body, that the action and pathos of the song is indicated; the correspondence is often very beautiful, while the feet regulate the time, and impart that locomotive effect in which they so much delight; sometimes the feet are merely lifted, to descend with a stamp; sometimes, a leaping stride is taken on either side; at others, a combination of both; but they have yet a more violent gesture; forming four deep, in open order, they make short runs to and fro, leaping, prancing, and crossing each other's paths, brandishing their sticks, and raising such a cloud of dust by the vehemence and rapidity of the exercise, that to a bystander it has all the effect of the wildest battle scene of savage life, and which it is doubtless intended to imitate. While all this is going on in the ring, the women in the centre are not idle spectators; they do not indeed move from their position, but, bending their bodies forwards to the clap of their hands, stamping with both feet together, and raising their voices to the highest pitch, they fill in their parts, and follow out the chorus with such a degree of continued exertion, as would cause an European female to go upon crutches for the remainder of her life."

The regiment stationed at Unkundinglove, is about 900 strong, and the men composing it are, our author says, for the most part chiefs of villages,—a fact which speaks much for the populousness of the country. Dingán, notwithstanding his professions of friendship to the English in general, and our author in particular, still declined to permit white men to teach in his country; and Captain Gardiner despairingly returned to Port Natal. Here, however, the settlers were alarmed at the numbers of Amazúla refugees who crowded round them, and from the pursuit of whom they had reason to apprehend disagreeable consequences. Captain Gardiner undertook to arrange the matter with Dingán; found the king at Congella, a military town nearer the coast than Unkundinglove, and after a little time succeeded in making a treaty with him, by which it was agreed that the Amazúla already settled at Port Natal should be allowed to remain there unmolested, but that for the future all deserters should be sent back by the settlers, an onerous, and, to us it appears, an impracticable stipulation. The conclusion of this treaty, backed by some presents, had a most favourable effect on the Zúla king, and our author received permission to teach in the district called *Clomanthleen*, (i. e. the shields, from the two regiments, the black and white shields, which are stationed there,) which adjoins the settlement at Natal. A site was subsequently chosen for the mission station, and huts were erected by the chief of the place; but Captain Gardiner, alarmed to find himself personally responsible for the execution of the treaty which he had made, turned his back on the hermitage at Colula (so he named the new station), and hurried home in breathless haste. We also shall quit it for the present, but shall return, to cast an eye on the relations subsisting between the Amazúla and the English settlers at Port Natal.

*Slavery.* By William E. Channing. Boston, Monroe & Co.; London, Kennett.

A recent traveller in America, whose researches were mainly directed to the condition and prospects of the negro and coloured population of the States—subjects which are exciting serious attention, and stirring up much discord on the other side of the Atlantic—devoted one chapter of his book to notes of a conversation held with the accomplished and high-minded writer of this little volume. If our memory serves us right, the impression conveyed by the traveller's report was, that Dr. Channing, if not wholly unfavourable to, was at best lukewarm on the subject of emancipation. It is possible, that this report may have concurred with other inducements to

cause the publication of this confession of faith; but it is most probable, we think, that Dr. Channing has "bided his time" till the moment when he felt that his store of wisdom, hitherto carefully reserved, would be of most avail to smooth the vexed waters of controversy: at all events, he has now spoken out, and that nobly:—it is a question, however, whether his views and counsels will satisfy either of the two conflicting parties.

We do not intend to insist here, upon the folly of zeal without judgment, nor to dwell at length on the golden maxim, that there may be a bigotry against bigotry, and that injustice does not lose its guilt because it is shown towards the unjust; but we must not forget, that to occupy a neutral height, equally aloof from either extreme, may be as much felt by the wise to be a duty, as resorted to by the timid and temporizing for protection's sake. We rejoice, however, when we meet with a writer who can, as in the treatise before us, put forth, with a clear conscience, the whole power of his manly and ardent eloquence—with a blow, as it were, in every word—to destroy the abominable sophistry, which would maintain, that man can be held as property, like a beast of burden, or a cottage, or a vineyard—and yet, in the same moment, offer the counsel of enlarged charity—how different this from the crafty suggestions of expediency!—to the offender as well as his victim:—who can show us how the wrong done may be so far a thing of inheritance, and prejudice, and circumstance, as to lessen his, not *its*, turpitude—and how, while we proceed steadily to accomplish its extinction, we should act with an imperfect morality were we to overlook, not merely the well-being of society in general, but even of those individuals whose false position is not wholly of their own seeking or adoption.

Our remarks refer, of course, to America. In England, thank Heaven! the interest of the question has subsided, since we have, by a great national sacrifice, recognized the importance of principle, and thereby bought rest for our own spirits, no less than happiness and prosperity, we hope, for millions of our fellow-creatures. The subject, therefore, can claim no very extended space in our columns, but we may be allowed to point out the comprehensive view taken of the general question by Dr. Channing, as a guide to Englishmen, when they devote themselves to the consideration of great national questions.

The following passages are from the Introduction to the essay:—

"There is but one unfulfilling good, and that is, fidelity to the everlasting law written on the heart, and re-written and re-published in God's word.

"Whoever places his faith in the everlasting law of rectitude, must, of course, regard the question of slavery first, and chiefly, as a moral question; all other considerations will weigh little with him, compared with his moral character and moral influences. The following remarks, therefore, are designed to aid the reader in forming a just moral judgment of slavery. Great truths, inalienable rights, everlasting duties, these will form the chief subjects of this discussion. These are times when the assertion of great principles is the best service a man can render society. The present is a moment of bewildering excitement, when men's minds are stormed and darkened by strong passions and fierce conflicts; and also a moment of absorbing worldliness, when the moral law is made to bow to expediency, and its high and strict requirements are decided or dismissed as metaphysical abstractions, or impracticable theories. At such a season, to utter great principles without passion, and in the spirit of unfeigned and universal good-will, and to engrave them deeply and durably on men's minds, is to do more for the world than to open mines of wealth, or to frame the most successful schemes of policy.

"Of late our country has been convulsed by the

question of slavery; and the people, in proportion as they have felt vehemently, have thought superficially, or hardly thought at all; and we see the results in a singular want of well-defined principles, in a strange vagueness and inconsistency of opinion, and in the proneness to excess which belongs to unsettled minds. The multitude have been called, now to contemplate the horrors of slavery, and now to shudder at the ruin and bloodshed which must follow emancipation. The word *Massacre* has resounded through the land, striking terror into strong as well as tender hearts, and awakening indignation against whatever may seem to threaten such a consummation. The consequence is, that not a few dread all discussion of the subject, and, if not reconciled to the continuance of slavery, at least believe that they have no duty to perform, no testimony to bear, no influence to exert, no sentiments to cherish and spread, in relation to this evil. What is still worse, opinions either favouring or extenuating it are heard with little or no disapprobation. Concessions are made to it, which would once have shocked the community; whilst to assail it, is pronounced unwise and perilous. No stronger reason for a calm exposition of its true character can be given, than this very state of the public mind. A community can suffer no greater calamity than the loss of its principles. Lofty and pure sentiment is the life and hope of a people. There was never such an obligation to discuss slavery as at this moment, when recent events have done much to unsettle and obscure men's minds in regard to it. This result is to be ascribed in part to the injudicious vehemence of those who have taken into their hands the cause of the slave. Such ought to remember that to espouse a good cause is not enough. We must maintain it in a spirit answering to its dignity. Let no man touch the great interests of humanity, who does not strive to sanctify himself for the work, by cleansing his heart of all wrath and uncharitableness, who cannot hope that he is in a measure baptized into the spirit of universal love. Even sympathy with the injured and oppressed may do harm, by being partial, exclusive, and bitterly indignant. How far the declension of the spirit of freedom is to be ascribed to the cause now suggested I do not say. The effect is plain, and whoever sees and laments the evil should strive to arrest it.

"Slavery ought to be discussed. We ought to think, feel, speak and write about it. But whatever we do in regard to it, should be done with a deep feeling of responsibility, and so done as not to put in jeopardy the peace of the slave-holding states.

"On this point public opinion has not been, and cannot be, too strongly pronounced. Slavery, indeed, from its very nature, must be a ground of alarm wherever it exists. Slavery and security can be by no device joined together. But we may not, must not, by rashness and passion increase the peril. To instigate the slave to insurrection is a crime for which no rebuke, and no punishment can be too severe. This would be to involve slave and master in common ruin. It is not enough to say, that the constitution is violated by any action endangering the slave-holding portion of our country. A higher law than the Constitution forbids this unholy interference. Were our national union dissolved, we ought to reprobate, as sternly as we now do, the slightest manifestation of a disposition to stir up a servile war. Still more, were the free and the slave-holding states not only separated, but engaged in the fiercest hostilities, the former would deserve the abhorrence of the world, and the indignation of Heaven, were they to resort to insurrection and massacre as means of victory. Better were it for us to bare our own breasts to the knife of the slave, than to arm him with it against his master.

"It is not by personal, direct action on the mind of the slave, that we can do him good. Our concern is with the free. With the free we are to plead his cause. And this is peculiarly our duty, because we have bound ourselves to resist his efforts for his own emancipation. We suffer him to do nothing for himself. The more, then, should be done for him. Our physical power is pledged against him in case of revolt. Then our moral power should be exerted for his relief. His weakness, which we increase, gives him a claim to the only aid we can afford to our moral sympathy, to the free and faithful exposition of his



wrongs. As men, as christians, as citizens, we have duties to the slave, as well as to every other member of the community. On this point we have no liberty. The eternal law binds us to take the side of the injured; and this law is peculiarly obligatory, when we forbid him to lift an arm in his own defence."

We trust that the moral to be drawn from this even-handed manner of treating a subject so difficult and so liable to be coloured by prejudice will not be wholly overlooked by our political writers; and we earnestly recommend to the reader this last of Dr. Channing's noble works.

*History of the Rising, the War, and the Revolution of Spain*.—[*Historia del Levantamiento, &c.*] By the Count de Toreno. Vols. I. & II. Paris, Baudry; London, Dulau.

THOUGH much has been written on the Peninsular War, and on the circumstances of Spain during that memorable period, the subject is by no means exhausted. It has only been treated partially. The French, for example, have in general confined themselves to the operations of their own and of the hostile armies; the English have done the same; and the ignorance of both in regard to the proceedings of the native juntas, and to the popular feeling of the country, is really surprising. There is but one exception to this censure,—that of Mr. Southey, who has done more than any other to make us acquainted with the "Spanish mind and heart,"—with the character, habits, and opinions of the people. Still, he was distant from the scene of events; his materials were often scanty, and his guides frequently erroneous,—circumstances which inevitably lead to the inference, that if much has been done, much also remains to be done. The desideratum, indeed, can be supplied only by a Spaniard; and by a Spaniard, too, not only resident on the spot, and a witness, if not an actor, in the scenes he describes, but by one free from prejudice, and determined to write the truth, whether agreeable or not to his countrymen.

This desideratum will not be supplied by the work of Toreno; at least, if we may judge from the two volumes already published, which though they bring down the course of events no later than the first half of the year 1811, comprise the most interesting part of the period. The author, indeed, is minute enough; but, unfortunately, he selects details which in themselves have no permanent influence on the times, and have no interest to recommend them. Many of them are unworthy the dignity of history. His style has little elegance; his manner is cold; and though his patriotism frequently draws from him, now approbation of his countrymen, now condemnation of their enemies, he never rises into animation. In reality, he was himself often too distant from the great theatre of contention, to judge with accuracy of the manner in which the antagonists acquitted themselves. Add to all this, that in doing justice to the valour of the Spaniards, he sometimes overlooks that of their allies, and faintly commends where he ought to have highly applauded; and we must form no immoderate expectations from the future volumes of the work.

Yet, with all these defects, the work will be found useful. In the first place, if the events related are, with a few unimportant exceptions, to be found in other books, they are not to be found in *any one* book; they lie scattered in a multitude of volumes,—English, French, and Spanish, and some praise is due for the labour which has collected them. In the second, the author has consulted the documents, both public and private, of his own country with greater zeal, and consequently with greater success, than any of his predecessors; and from the

advantage of intimacy with those who had the chief direction in public affairs, he has learned better how to appreciate their motives and acts. In the third, he has been careful, to throw into the Appendix such official papers or private letters, as tend to elucidate the history of the time more clearly than his predecessors have been able to do. These are, no doubt, three great advantages; and though the work is not equal to our expectations, it is in many respects the most complete, and, consequently, the most satisfactory, of any that have yet appeared. It will not supersede them; but it will be found a valuable addition to them.

The Conde de Toreno exposes, in its true colours, the course of perfidy and of violence adopted by Bonaparte towards his country. But he is by no means zealous in condemning the bad faith and unprincipled ambition of his own government, which was so easily led into the atrocious league against Portugal. He nowhere acknowledges that it fell into the pit which it had dug for another;—nor do we see with what justice one rogue can complain of his companion for the exercise of their usual vocation. Spain deserved punishment, and she received it.

Nor is our author less unsatisfactory in regard to what he calls the *causa de Escorial*. We grant that the proceedings alike of the King, the Prince of the Asturias, and Godoy, are wrapped in mystery; but he had many opportunities of conversing with the actors in that memorable scene, and he *might* have learned more than he has communicated. Perhaps, however, he is unwilling to relate all that he *does* know. Yet, studiously as the veil has been thrown over the affair, we may catch a glimpse at the proceedings behind. Let us for a moment contemplate the position of all the parties concerned. Godoy, a man infamous for his vices, the paramour of the Queen, and the absolute master of the kingdom, is naturally hated by the Infante Don Fernando, who is constantly kept aloof from the affairs of state, and is no better than a cipher. That the Prince should murmur at this exclusion, was inevitable; and that this murmuring only made it the more rigid, was to be expected. Every motion was watched by the spies of Godoy, who had no difficulty in making the deluded parents believe whatever he told them. The Prince was observed to be much occupied in writing, in sending and receiving letters; and the minister persuaded the King that the occupation could not possibly be an innocent one; that, from information which he had received, he believed it portended trouble to the state. Nor was this suspicion ill-founded. Indignant at his own situation,—a prisoner in the palace—blushing for his mother's shame, and incensed beyond measure at the haughty and even tyrannical behaviour of her minion, Ferdinand was intent on revenge. He well knew the universal dislike borne to Godoy by the Spanish people; and he could rely on the assistance of thousands in hurling that weak and vicious man from the eminence he disgraced. But he was compelled to proceed with caution; his enemy was all-powerful, and jealous of every movement. He secured, however, many partisans, who, in their turn, worked on the passions of the multitude, until a very formidable conspiracy was organized, the object of which was, at least, the destruction of Godoy. This was certainly treason; and as it could not escape the vigilant eye of the minister, we cannot be surprised that it was reported, in aggravated colours, to the King. The Prince was placed under arrest, and preparations made for his trial; in fact, it was seriously resolved to exclude him from the throne of Spain, and to substitute in his place one of his brothers. To execute a project of so much importance, especially in the state of the popular mind, which

was as favourable to Ferdinand as it was hostile to his enemies, required foreign aid; and communications were secretly opened with Napoleon by Don Eugenio Isquierdo, envoy of the court at Paris. But the Prince of the Asturias had also his spies, and seeing the ruin which menaced him, he, to avert it, eagerly sought the favour of the Emperor. We have, indeed, reason to suspect that, despairing of justice being done to him so long as Godoy was in power, and believing that this power would be commensurate with his father's reign, he meditated the dethronement of that feeble monarch. Here was the father bent on the ruin of the son, and the son on that of the father. Neither, however, would have resorted to so criminal a resolution, but from a feeling of self-preservation: the old man was taught to fear, that the *sole* object of the Prince was his ruin; the latter, that the King had no affection for him, and was intent, whatever his conduct, on his degradation,—perhaps his imprisonment for life. All this was the work of Godoy, who, there is reason to infer, won over to his interest the more confidential instruments of Ferdinand, and prevailed on them to lead the Prince more deeply into guilt. There is the strongest moral evidence for inferring, that it was at the instigation of Godoy's creatures, that Ferdinand made his fatal application to Napoleon, and that the secret was immediately communicated to the King. On no other hypothesis can we account for the extreme rigour of proceeding on the part of a parent, distinguished for affection towards his children. Godoy had long foreseen that either he or the Prince must be ruined; and he preferred the latter alternative. Besides, the flattering manner in which he was treated by Napoleon, who, perceiving his insensate vanity, and unprincipled ambition, lured him with the prospect of an independent sovereignty, made him confident of success in whatever he attempted. Little did he know the character of the man on whom he thus relied. The Emperor had long formed his designs on Spain; and this simultaneous application of father and son,—both making him the absolute umpire in the affair, convinced him that the time for executing them was come. It was his object to delude both parties by vague promises of support; but he cautiously refrained from committing anything to writing; his communications were verbal, and so varied, as to raise the hopes of the party to whom they were delivered by his agents: and if he did not make Don Juan de Escoiquiz, agent of the Prince, his instrument, he certainly made him his dupe. In fact, never was scene acted on the stage of life so full of dissimulation and of perfidy,—not on the one part only, but on both. The most criminal, however, of the actors, were the Emperor, the Queen, and Godoy; though no small share of execration must cover Ferdinand. The least guilty of them all, was doubtless the King, whose greatest defect was deplorable imbecility; but in a sovereign,—in an absolute sovereign especially, even imbecility is a crime, especially when, as in the present case, associated with a frequent disregard of the laws.

All parties had soon opportunity for reflection, and all began to perceive the necessity of, at least, outward moderation. Soon after his imprisonment, Ferdinand seems to have caught a glimpse of the true state of things,—to have found that both he and his father were duped by Napoleon; and he made to his mother some communication, which at once arrested the judicial proceedings against him. The father, too, opened his eyes to the danger of his situation; and Godoy, perceiving that he was suspected by both parties, and dreading to continue his open persecution of one who was evidently under the

protection of the Emperor, hastened to effect a reconciliation between the father and the son. Ferdinand was easily persuaded to write a letter of contrition; and Charles as easily to re-admit a repentant son to his bosom. Besides, both the King and Godoy well knew that the most adventurous spirits of Spain were with the Infante; and that the very attempt to injure him, during the absence of foreign troops, might produce an insurrection. The reconciliation, however, was too sudden to be very sincere; and there is reason to infer that both parties continued to hope for the aid of the French monarch. In the sequel, Ferdinand had influence enough to ruin Godoy, and even to make his father abdicate the throne. That this effect was produced as much by the influence of Bonaparte, as by the open antipathy of the nation, is certain; for Charles was compelled to abandon one disliked equally by his ally and his subjects. In this state of impotence, it is no wonder that he wished to lay down a sceptre too heavy for him to sustain, and to deliver it to one who, since the fall of the favourite, was the master of the kingdom. Besides, many of his fortresses were already in the hands of the French; and he felt himself unequal to the conflict which evidently impended over the realm. But the intrigues of his Queen, anxious to save "her gentle Godoy," and, above all, incensed against her son, induced him soon afterwards to protest against the act, and to declare it invalid. This was the work of Murat, no less than of the Queen; both parties were persuaded to appeal to the Emperor; while the brothers of Ferdinand, and all who could aspire to the throne of Spain, were deluded across the Pyrenees; both were consigned to different prisons; and "the house of Bourbon ceased to reign" in Spain, as that of Braganza in Portugal.

The view which we have thus briefly taken of the immortal events at the Escorial and Aranjuez, though differing in some respects from that of all other writers, will, we are confident, be found the true one. Much indeed, must, after all, remain obscure; but what is open leads us to infer the character of what is unseen; and history, dark as her pages often are, has not so dark a one as that which we have attempted to trace. "Thus," says our author, after relating the forced abdication of Charles and his son, "ended the celebrated conferences at Bayonne, between the Emperor of the French and the unfortunate royal family of Spain. It is only with the blackest ink that this dark page can be written. It exhibits Napoleon perfidious and deceitful; the King and Queen equally unnatural; Ferdinand and the other Infantes weak and blind; their advisers ignorant or opposed to one another,—all concurring, however, in the origin of a bloody drama, which has been fatal to many of them,—which has been ruinous to Spain; yet which has shook to its foundation France itself." The language might be much stronger, but the Conde fears to speak out. Most of the advisers were not merely ignorant and at variance in their opinions, they were certainly treacherous,—the creatures of the Emperor, instead of being the friends of the family. Let him who doubts this, peruse the minute circumstances which led to the departure of the members of that family to Bayonne; the intrigues in that place; the renunciation alike of Charles, Ferdinand, and the Infantes; the care with which the Spanish "advisers" provided for themselves; and when he has done all this, let him persevere in his incredulity—if he can.

Gladly would we enter into the discussion of some other points, if our limits would permit us. We can only glance at two or three of the more prominent passages of the two volumes:—1. The behaviour of Joseph Bonaparte is here de-

scribed in colours not very flattering to "that philosophic prince." He is represented as idle and fond of pleasure,—as weak and vicious; in short, as possessing the defects without the good qualities of Charles IV. It is undoubtedly a fact, that he professed himself the patron of letters, and still more of the fine arts; but his patronage cost him nothing: for on no consideration would he contract his expenses. 2. Though the author does no more than justice to the indomitable spirit of his countrymen, he seldom extends it to their enemies. On all occasions the French are made to appear the assailants, when in many they acted merely on the defensive. We have no feeling for the French Marshals, for they were engaged in an odious and unjust cause; but we must censure the attempt to render their proceedings odious,—even when they deserve unmingled approbation. Their excesses, indeed, were common enough; but many were the occasions on which they acted in a chivalrous spirit of honour, worthy of the middle ages. Such actions it is as delightful to contemplate, as it is painful to see the jealousy with which they are suppressed. 3. The conduct of the different juntas, especially that of the supreme one, is always praised or vindicated by our author. Thus, when Wellington complains of the backwardness they exhibited in supplying his army with provisions, he is censured for expecting what was impossible; there was no money to purchase them, is the excuse; yet money enough could be found for the private purses of the members,—money, too, which had been voted expressly for the purpose. 4. But in describing the proceedings of these juntas, and especially of the Cortes, installed in the Isle of Leon, no guide is safer, none better informed, than the Conde. Here he will be read with interest; and to the future historian he is indispensable. The sentiments of the different speakers are expressed with a brevity perhaps too severe, but we may assume, with accuracy. In short, here are to be found some of the materials for a constitutional history of Spain.

We know not what number of volumes the author proposes to embrace in his work, but we are dubious of its success. At present Spain is no market for books; and, assuredly, such a one as this will seldom be consulted in France or England. If, however, the author should abridge much of his subject, and come, almost *per saltum*, to the revolution of 1823, he might hope for more readers: and he would have more still, if he embraced in his plan the present political state of the country. In this case, he would occupy a ground hitherto untrodden; and would communicate to his pages an interest which they cannot possibly possess, so long as he confines himself to transactions, imperfectly known perhaps, but still generally known. It is not merely accuracy in reference to the past that we want; we are eager for information concerning the present. From the Conde, however, we scarcely expect it; as, on many occasions, he is manifestly unwilling to relate what he suspects or even knows.

*The Quarterly Journal of Agriculture, No. 32.*  
Edinburgh, Blackwood; London, Cadell.

WE have more than once recommended this very ably-conducted periodical to such of our readers as are interested in the subjects to which it is especially devoted. It, however, not unfrequently occurs that papers of general interest are to be found in its pages. In the present number, for instance, there is one 'On the Varieties of Climate in the Russian Empire,' which we consider as so able a summary, and on so important a subject, that we shall take leave, after this acknowledgment, to extract from it very copiously. Such are the data

from which we may fairly calculate the political power of a country, and on which we can best found our speculations as to its future destiny. It is translated, says the editor, from the Supplement to the Agricultural Gazette, published at St. Petersburg, and is supposed to have been written by an eminent statesman of the Russian empire.

*"On the Varieties of Climate and Productions in the Russian Empire."*

"Before entering on the immediate subject of this dissertation, it may not be superfluous to take a brief view of the causes of diversity of climate in general. These may be divided into common, natural, and local; the latter not following, but to a certain degree changing, the ordinary laws of nature.

"To the common and natural causes belong, first, the principal and well-known one of latitude; and, secondly, the longitude; for it is ascertained, that, in the northern parts of Europe and Asia, the climates of places situated on the same degree of latitude become colder in proportion to their eastern longitude. But this increased severity of climate extends only to a limited distance eastward, gradually diminishing again as we approach the eastern ocean. Thirdly, the greater or less elevation above the sea: thus, in Mexico, on the elevated table lands, in the interior of that vast country, the mean heat of the year is only 10° (Reaumur)."

"To the accidental and local causes of variation of climate belong the vicinity of the place to the ocean, or to some other great expanse of water; the quantity of forest; the position of the hills and valleys; the shelter afforded from the most prevalent cold or hot winds; the nature of the soil, and its more or less advantageous slope towards the south. The climate of a whole province may be beneficially affected by the change or removal of one or more of the above causes, as, for instance, the clearing away of superfluous forests, the draining of bogs, and even the cultivation of the soil. But the excessive or total destruction of the woods of a country is injurious to its climate as connected with the fertility of the soil."

"We shall now proceed to our more immediate subject, and divide Russia into the following climatic regions. 1st. The region of ice. 2nd. The region of moss. 3rd. The region of forests and pasturage. 4th. The region of barley and the beginning of agriculture. 5th. The region of rye and flax, or of settled agriculture. 6th. The region of wheat and fruit. 7th. The region of maize and the vine. 8th. The region of the olive-tree, the silk-worm, and the sugar-cane."

*"The Region of Ice."*

"The icy region may be considered as including Novaya Zembla,† part of the Kolskaya district, and the extreme northern points of land which project into the Frozen Ocean. This region is distinguished by a night of three months' duration, and its total destitution of vegetable productions, which circumstances render it unfit for the permanent habitation of man and domestic animals. The seal, the walrus, and fish of various descriptions which abound towards the pole, supply the only means of sustenance for man, the polar bear, and its inseparable companion the fox; except on Novaya Zembla, where multitudes of a peculiar kind of mice breed, and lay up heaps of roots for their winter store. These mice serve, in their turn, as food for the bears and foxes.

"The maritime enterprises undertaken by the commercial house of Brandt in Archangel, may probably furnish us with more authentic information concerning these parts. They have been conducted with as much courage as perseverance, and although the profits arising from them may in some measure supply the place of agriculture, yet they cannot be said in any way to be connected with it.

*"The Mossy Region."*

"Where the ever-frozen ground is covered with a kind of greyish moss, and towards the boundaries of the following region, with a kind of dwarf brushwood and fir. This tract is endowed by nature with an animal that alone makes it habitable for man, the reindeer. Its vast deserts stretch from Archangel, along the shores of the White Sea to the Eastern

† Or the New Land, incorrectly marked on the English globes and maps *Nova Zembla*.



Ocean, peopled by thinly scattered nomadic tribes of Laplanders, Samoyedes, Ostiaks, and other aborigines, whose numbers are gradually decreasing as they come in contact with civilized nations. Besides the resources derived from the milk and flesh of the rein-deer, a considerable portion of the population is supported by fish.† The chase of marine animals, and such as furnish valuable furs, affords the principal employment of the inhabitants. Besides which, innumerable flocks of swans, wild geese, and other aquatic birds of passage, visit them during their short summer, and form an important part of their sustenance. Lastly, in this region, adjacent to the Frozen Ocean, at the mouth of great rivers, and near certain islands, are found those astonishing remains of antediluvian animals, particularly of the mammoth; and here was discovered that enigma for naturalists, the bones of one of those monsters, still covered with flesh and skin.

#### "The Region of Forests and Pasturage.

"By degrees the dwarf trees and brushwood of the mossy region increase in size, until we come to those immense forests, where the hand of man has not yet disturbed the majestic operations of nature. Along the banks of the rivers, and in other spots unincumbered with wood, the grass shoots up with astonishing rapidity; but the lingering frosts of spring, and the early appearance of those of autumn, prevent the cultivation of corn. For this reason the inhabitants of the northern part of this district are principally occupied with the chase, especially that of the squirrel, an animal that seems to be indigenous there, and which forms the principal inducement for man to take up his abode in this inhospitable clime. The abundance of grass in the southern part affords the means of keeping cattle; while in some sheltered spots appear a few corn-fields, as it were, the outposts of agriculture. The northern and eastern parts of this region are inhabited by nomadic tribes; then follow the Finns or Finlanders, a settled people chiefly dependent on pasturage for support. It would be difficult to mark with precision the southern boundaries of this region, as it falls gradually into the next.

#### "The Region of Barley, and the Beginning of Agriculture.

"On account of the shortness of the summer, and the early autumnal frosts, barley is the only grain successfully cultivated here, but, with great care, several kinds of vegetables may be brought to maturity, and possibly potatoes might thrive. The inhabitants are Russians, Finns, Zhirians, and others having settled habitations; but from the insignificance of their agriculture, they have recourse to grazing, fishing, and the chase, floating of timber, &c. In some parts, however, of the governments of Archangel and Vologda, are to be found a very superior breed of horned cattle. The southern limits of this region may be said to extend nearly to the town of Yarensk in the government of Vologda, and the parts of a corresponding degree of latitude, viz. the 63°. Nature, as the author himself had an opportunity of observing, here assumes an imposing aspect: immense forests, vast rivers, beautiful meadows, flourishing in all the unexhausted luxuriance of primitive vegetation, making an impression on the traveller that can only be adequately conceived by those who have wandered through the unexplored forests, and beheld the majestic streams of the New World.

"The Region of Rye and Flax, or of settled Agriculture. "Extends from the limits of the former, southward to the middle of the government of Tchernigov, or to the 51st degree of northern latitude, and the districts on the corresponding line to the eastward. It would be superfluous to enter into a minute description of this vast region, which comprises the principal part of the Russian Empire; we shall therefore content ourselves with a few partial observations.

"It will readily be conceived, that the southern part has some advantages over the northern, although they are not of such a striking nature as to demand a separation; it may even be said these advantages are more than counterbalanced by other unpropitious circumstances, which concur to depress agriculture, especially in Baylo Rossia (White Russia). The difference between the western and eastern extre-

† To counteract the ravages of the scurvy the inhabitants employ a kind of cochlearia.

mities of this region is very striking. The climate of Moscow may be called the medium, or real Russian climate, and is exceedingly favourable for all agricultural pursuits. Towards Siberia the seasons are much more inclement; while to the westward, beyond the Dnieper and Dwina, they are so mild, that about Grodno and Baylostock plums and pears grow in the open air. Under favourable circumstances, and by means of gradual naturalization to the climate, we meet with fruits even in the northern part of this region, especially apples; but even they require great care, and sometimes the trees are destroyed by the frost. The provinces situated on the Baltic, besides occupying the extreme west, are favoured by the vicinity of the sea; their climate is therefore the mildest of any in this region on similar degrees of latitude. The European part, forming one immense plain but little diversified by hills of any considerable elevation; the local difference of climate is not considerable, and arises chiefly from the forests, bogs, and the nature of the soil.

"Agriculture in this region is almost, without exception, conducted on the most primitive and unimproved plan, called the *trekpolnia*, or three-field system, especially in the original Russian provinces, where we scarcely meet with any examples of the improved methods, except here and there by way of trial, or as a kind of rural luxury on the part of the proprietor; while, in the Baltic provinces, considerable progress has been made in introducing a proper rotation of crops, and in general the modern improvements in agriculture. The breeding of cattle has likewise remained in its original imperfect state, without any improvement, and existing only as a kind of indispensable appendage to husbandry. The quantity of forest land is unfortunately greatly diminishing in this region, except in those parts from which wood is not easily conveyed to market. This circumstance seems to threaten the inhabitants with a dearth of that most indispensable article, and the more so, as the southern provinces, where this want is already severely felt, are principally supplied by floated timber from this region. An improved system of forest management is even more necessary than an improved system of agriculture, although the latter would doubtless greatly contribute to introduce the former, for, under proper management, much less meadow and arable land would be necessary to produce a given quantity of corn and hay, and the forests would no longer be destroyed merely for the purpose of procuring a piece of fresh land.

"The distinguishing feature of this region is vast and convenient water communication, without which the useful products of the inland districts would scarcely find their way to any market; by their means the single article of tallow is exported to the amount of forty millions of roubles annually.

#### "The Region of Wheat and Fruit.

"It must not be inferred from this appellation that these productions of the soil do not thrive in the last-mentioned region, but merely that they are much more abundant here, and that the climate is more genial to their growth. This region may be said to extend to Yekaterinoslav, or to the 48th degree of latitude. Several kinds of grain, as buckwheat, millet, &c. are cultivated here with much greater success than in the last described region. The cultivation of tobacco, although it exhausts the soil, is rapidly spreading, and will eventually become a source of great profit. Hemp is also found to thrive better than in more northern situations, but the chief object of the agriculturist is the breeding of cattle. Studs of horses and sheep farms exist here as separate establishments; but the breeding of horned cattle is generally connected with husbandry, and on a much larger scale than in the northern provinces. Bee-hives are also a source of no small profit, especially to the peasants. The abundance and cheapness of corn encourage distillation. Spirit is thus the principal and almost only article of fabrication. The greater part of this region was colonized later than the preceding, and the stability of its population in the southern part can only be dated from the conquest of New Russia and the Crimea. This country may be called the granary of the empire, for it supplies not only Petersburg and the army, but furnishes the principal part of the raw productions (except flax) for exportation. We may therefore conclude, that, with even a more dense population in this fer-

tile district, Russia would have escaped the ravages of famine, which not unfrequently in former times devastated the country. But the more confidently we rely on the fertility of this province for a supply, the more sensibly is a failure in the crops felt. A bad harvest, however, may be considered as a thing of rare occurrence.

"In consideration of the vast importance of this region, we must extend our observations to several points connected with its husbandry, namely, the steppes, the population, the variations of the climate, the extent of the villages, and the general method of cultivation. The steppes are peculiar to eastern Europe and middle Asia; and are altogether distinct from the American savannahs, which, during the tropical rains, are partially inundated. The natural causes of the destitution of forest on the steppes are, 1st. The hardness and tenacity of the earth, which in many places is of such a nature as to prevent the growth of trees without previous digging and breaking up of the soil. 2nd. The black loam of which they consist is not favourable to the growth of forest. 3rd. The aridity of the climate and the elevated situation of the steppes, which latter circumstance probably occasions the growth of a number of dwarf fruits, especially apples, which are found on bushes no higher than the grass. 4th. The predominance of salt in many parts is not only unfavourable to the growth of trees and grass, but renders the soil unfit for agricultural purposes. The accidental causes consist in the destruction of the woods, of the former existence of which there have been discovered indubitable traces. Such destruction may be accounted for by the nomadic habits of the former inhabitants; by the burning of the steppes in dry seasons, the destruction of the young trees by the cattle, &c. This is the more probable, as, from a very remote period, this country was the abode of various tribes now extinct, who carried on an unceasing predatory warfare against their more settled agricultural neighbours. Forests once thoroughly destroyed seldom, if ever, flourish again unless cultivated by the hand of man; and the country, thus left bare and exposed to every wind, becomes arid, and the climate greatly deteriorated. It must be confessed that there is something so very peculiar in the natural features of the steppes, that the above assigned causes may appear insufficient to account for it; but it would lead us beyond the limits of this dissertation to enter more minutely into the investigation. The steppes, in general, may be divided into the grassy, the heathy, the saline, the sandy, and the stony, not to notice the low grounds covered with reeds. These steppes have considerable influence on the population and husbandry of this sixth region. If, on the one hand, they are favourable to the breeding of cattle; on the other, their destitution of wood, the unfitness of the soil in many parts for farming purposes, the variable nature of the climate, the difficulty of preserving the corn-fields from the inroads of the cattle, and, above all, the scanty supply of water, all concur to retard the adequate increase of the settled population, and to give rise to a wretched method of culture called the *perelag* plan.† The sterile part of the steppes is scarcely less profitable than that which is cultivated, for on it are found the salt lakes, probably the remains of a sea which at some former period covered the country, or perhaps their saline qualities may arise from strata of rock-salt forming their beds, or the qualities of the soil through which the various rivulets run in their course to the lakes. It is not improbable, that, by means of perseverance in an improved system of cultivation, many saline districts may become fertile in the production of useful plants. Some parts may be laid under water to great advantage, especially if they succeed in constructing conduits of fresh water. But the chief advantage derived from the steppes is the means afforded of rearing large flocks of fine-woolled sheep. If we consider the low price of land in Russia, the immense extent of the steppes that furnish good pasturage for sheep, and the cheapness of labour and bread, we may reasonably anticipate the period when Russia will furnish the greater part of Europe with wool, except perhaps the very finest sorts, which it may be more convenient to produce where sheep-breeding

† This consists in sowing corn on fresh land, until its productive powers are exhausted, and then abandoning it, to seek another spot to cultivate.

is connected with agriculture in its highest state of improvement; and even towards this end the Baltic provinces have made considerable progress. The variety of climate in this region is much greater than in the last described. The western governments, as Kiev and Podolia, are favoured with very mild seasons, but towards the east, the ungenial effects of the vicinity of Asia are plainly felt, even without entering Siberia, and the more so as we approach the limits of the next, or seventh region. This variation is distinctly visible in the productions of the earth, it being no longer possible, though on the same degree of latitude, to produce and rear those plants which thrive in the west. Perhaps, in the course of time, when the soil and forests are properly cultivated, a considerable improvement may take place in the climate.

"With respect to the population of this region, it may be divided into the old established Russian inhabitants, who have from time immemorial dwelt in the western governments of Kiev, Podolsky, Malo-Rossia, &c., and those that have settled at a later period in Kursk, Saratoff, &c. The original Russian governments are pretty well peopled, according to their extent, and the imperfect system of agriculture which has hitherto prevailed,—a system requiring a far greater extent of arable, meadow, and forest land than would be necessary under an improved system of husbandry; so that, in some parts, a want of land has been felt, especially in Little Russia and the government of Poltava, where the former prosperous condition of the people has been considerably deteriorated by the extraordinary increase in the consumption of ardent spirits. This deficiency of land might be remedied by colonization, which, however, would be attended with great difficulties, by the encouragement of industry in manufactures, the effects of which could not be immediately felt to any considerable extent; or, thirdly, by the introduction of an improved system of agriculture, which would without all doubt restore Malo-Rossia, and other districts, to their former flourishing condition; for those provinces, which are considered in Russia as scantily supplied with land, in other parts of Europe (not to mention England, Belgium, and Upper Italy), would, with a better system of education, be considered as having more than sufficient for a much greater population. \*

*"The Region of Maize and the Vine.*

"Although we have fixed upon the vine and Indian corn as characteristic productions of this region, it must be remembered that it produces also all those common to the last described. The vine, as is well known, thrives only in certain climates and situations; and Indian corn is not to be considered as an exclusive product, but rather as a distinguishing feature. This region includes Bessarabia, the New Russia, the territory of the Don Cossacks, the government of Astrachan, and the Caucasus. The southern part of Siberia, from the peculiar nature of the climate, can scarcely be said to form any portion of it. The greater part of the above-mentioned governments and districts consists of steppes, partially used as pasturage, and in part unproductive. The Crimea (at least the southern part of it,) belongs rather to the next region. The hilly parts of Bessarabia are fruitful and well supplied with wood. The low lands are steppes, which, towards the Danube, are covered with reeds, and the air unwholesome. On the banks of some rivers, and in various other parts, the vine may be cultivated to advantage. The government of Cherson presents a vast plain intersected by deep narrow ravines or dells; the soil is hard, and but little suited to the growth of trees, without the assistance of art, exposed to frequent droughts, and consequently to bad harvests; besides which, it is at times (as well as other parts of the seventh region), subject to the ravages of the locust. The government of Yekaterinoslav suffers less than that of Cherson; but eastward towards the Donetzky ridge, near Bakhmut and Slavianskerbik, droughts are more frequent. The northern part of the government consists of steppes fit for pasturage, and abounding in salt; the southern part enjoys a most genial climate, especially along the shore, where the sea has considerable influence on the atmosphere, but this tract belongs properly to the eighth region. Not only the vine and other delicate fruit-trees grow here in perfection,

but also the olive, the caper, &c. which have been planted, thrive, and will doubtless, in the course of time, be cultivated on a large scale. The southern parts of the government of Voronezh are steppes, but capable of cultivation. The territory of the Don Cossacks is also steppe, towards the south-east, but fit for all the purposes of husbandry. Coal is found in the Donetzky ridge, as well as mines of lead and iron. Other parts are more or less suitable for the purposes of agriculture and the growth of the vine. The government of Astrachan has, in many parts, a sandy soil, affording scanty pasturage for the cattle, and the vine is cultivated in the Asiatic manner, by irrigation, which renders its fruit unfit for wine. The northern part of the Caucasus is principally sandy, interspersed with saline tracts and rivulets. Breeding of cattle is carried on to great advantage by the nomadic tribes which inhabit it. The southern parts towards the rivers Terek and Kuban are good for tillage, especially towards the west. In the environs of Kizliar, a kind of wine is made, that is chiefly used in the distilling of brandy, and no doubt there are many other situations where the vine would thrive. The territory belonging to the Cossacks of the Black Sea, consists partly of very low grounds, the rest resembles the western part of the Caucasian government. Population is but thinly scattered in this region, and the attempts at agriculture are all of recent date. A considerable portion of the population is of Asiatic origin, and not a few of the tribes still retain their nomadic habits. The other inhabitants of the country consist of Russians, Moldavians, Bulgarians, Greeks, and German colonists, the latter including the Menonites, celebrated for their superior husbandry. Gardening, as a speculation, is carried on to a considerable extent, but the numerous flocks of Merino sheep form the principal source of wealth, and they may yet be augmented to an almost incalculable extent. We may even hope to see large flocks of these useful animals, bred in Siberia, and the Society formed for the purpose of introducing them is deserving of every encouragement. New activity may be instilled into this undertaking, by grants of crown lands for the purpose of establishing sheep-farms. The nomadic tribes can scarcely participate in the advantages resulting from the introduction of this breed, as the sheep require proper shelter and food during the inclemency of the winter months, and it would be contrary to the improvident habits of these wandering people to lay up a stock of winter food.

"The principal defect of this region is the almost total absence of forests, and the great difficulty of rearing trees. Thus for want of wood the inhabitants are obliged to burn reeds, *bnyan*,\* straw, and *kizyakt*; but the employment of the two last-mentioned articles is contrary to the rules of good husbandry, although it can hardly be said that the time is arrived for the introduction of an improved system into these provinces. It would perhaps be well, in the first place, to turn our attention to the improvement in the breed of sheep, to the laying out of gardens and vineyards, and to the cultivation of Indian corn and exportable fruits; although the sowing of artificial grasses would prove of vast advantage to the breeders of cattle, as well as facilitate the future labours of the agriculturist. Equally important is the planting of trees, not only for the sake of a supply of building-timber and fuel, but also for the improvement of the climate. In the meantime, the inhabitants must be content with their present kinds of fuel, unless turf can be discovered, or the coal of the Donetzky ridge be brought into more general use. \*

*"The Region of the Olive Tree, the Silk-Worm, and the Sugar-cane.*

"This region includes the provinces beyond the Caucasus (Zakaukasky), but the climate, owing to the mountainous nature of the country, is exceedingly various, as may be seen by the diversity in the productions of the soil. The plants peculiar to hot climates grow in the valleys, while the hills are covered with corn and pasturage for cattle. The soil is also of various kinds, and towards the east there are extensive steppes. The local climates of this region may be divided in the following manner: first, The summits of the mountains always covered with snow;

\* The high grass of the steppes.  
\* Dried cow-dung.

then the beginning of vegetation, where nothing but pasturage for cattle is found; then follow the corn-fields; below them the vine flourishes, and we meet with the mulberry and other fruit trees; while still lower, in the valleys, particularly in the Persian provinces, grow cotton, rice, and other southern productions, which require artificial irrigation, an operation familiar to the inhabitants of Asia. The olive thrives chiefly in the western part, and only in those spots peculiarly suitable to its culture. The sugar-cane, that important colonial production, has been planted, and is spreading in some of the low and rich lands about Kura; but we can scarcely expect that this branch of industry should arrive at any considerable extent or degree of perfection. This succession of climates, according to altitude, presents a curious resemblance to the climates as they follow each other according to latitude. The forest region is the only one that is wanting in the Zakaukaskan mountains. The country beyond the Caucasus produces spontaneously several objects of great value, as a peculiar kind of cochineal, assafetida, &c., which may become the sources of great ultimate advantage. The most important, however, of the productions of this region, is doubtless silk, which may be said to be indigenous to the country, and no pains should be spared to bring this branch of industry to the greatest possible degree of perfection. The excess of the produce, after the home consumption is supplied, might, by means of the Danube, be transported at once into the heart of Europe. After silk, perhaps the olive would be the most advantageous object, and most deserving the attention of the cultivator, not forgetting wine, especially for home consumption. There is another plant deserving peculiar notice, the *Sesamum Orientale*, which grows abundantly in Egypt, and in the environs of Constantinople. The oil expressed from its seeds is of an excellent quality, not inferior to that of Provence. The growth of cotton would also be of great importance if it could be carried on to any great extent; the same may be observed of rice, but they are both, when extensively cultivated, injurious to the climate. In the course of time indigo may be produced, but of this, as of other tropical products, nothing positive can be affirmed. In the first place, it will be well to bestow our chief attention on the culture of those plants that are indigenous to the soil and climate, and on the encouragement of agriculture in general, and that there may be an abundant supply of provisions for the inhabitants. Such is the variety of climate, and such is the diversity of productions in this vast empire, whose resources may indeed be said to be inexhaustible, incalculable."

*Interesting Papers relating to the History of France, from the Time of Louis XI. to that of Louis XVIII., from Original Documents in the Royal Library. — [Archives Curieuses, &c. Par M. Cimber et F. Danjou.] Vols. IV. & V. Paris, Beauvais; London, Bos-sange, Barthes & Lowell.*

To the superficial inquirer, the progress of the Reformation in all the various countries of Europe, will appear to present very nearly the same features; and much wonder will be expressed (indeed, has been expressed, even by those who, professing to write upon the subject, ought certainly to have known better,) that its results in those countries should have been so different. The partial manner in which some histories have been written, and the careless manner in which others have been compiled, have been in great measure the cause of this erroneous impression; not to mention a third reason,—that love of systematizing, which leads us to attribute to the same, or even similar, causes, precisely the same train of results, and to take for granted that the same general principles will always produce, (overlooking the influence of minor causes, among nations variously constituted, and variously governed,) the same effects.

The inquirer, who would enter fully into the subject, should always have recourse to contemporary information, in its every form; for the placard, the lampoon, even the ballad of the day,



no less than the learned vindication, the laboured eulogy, or the authentic legal minute, will frequently supply that very information, which, from more ostentatious sources he may seek in vain. And it is on this account, for the light thus thrown upon the peculiar character of the Reformation in France, by the numerous pamphlets, Catholic and Huguenot, as well as extracts from manuscripts, collected in these two volumes, that their value consists; while in the bitterness of language, expressed on either side, we find ample evidence of that virulent feeling, which, with scarcely any intermission, placed the Papist and the Protestant of France in battle array, until the dragonades of Louis Quatorze ended the warfare.

The Reformation in France, unlike that of England, owed nothing to monarchs, and very little to nobles; and unlike Scotland, where the mass of the people absolutely urged on their leaders to the work, it was an object of horror to the populace. Still, the French reformers stood on vantage ground, compared with their brethren in neighbouring countries; and this was the unequalled learning of their leaders. Yet, not improbably, this very circumstance, which rendered the French Reformation a spectacle of interest in the eyes of all learned Europe, may be placed among the causes which prevented its spreading among the common people. Unlike the English Reformation, which contented itself with alterations of the ancient ritual, and, with the single exception of the Pope, left the other "lords spiritual" in possession of their dignities and authority, the French reformers rushed at once from the gorgeous ceremonial of the Latin church to the severe simplicity of Presbyterian worship, while Calvin caused every mitred head to shake with horror, when he propounded that "damnable doctrine," which had the honour in the following century of being equally anathematized in England, "the parity of the elders."

But it was in vain that Genevan doctrine excited the wrath of prelates and lord cardinals, or that councils decreed and universities determined, that such abominable dogmas should not be taught among Christian men; it was in vain that all the learning of the schoolmen was brought to bear on the subject; the French reformers stoutly maintained their views with equal subtlety, and with far more learning, while the very names of Calvin, Beza, and Ramus, were a passport for their doctrines throughout literary Europe. And to many a scholar, that very simplicity of worship had its attractions; it offered itself to the stronger mind as a "reasonable service,"—an intellectual homage, and he felt that in listening to the learned exposition, or the divinity lecture, (for such strictly were the Calvinist sermons,) there was exercise for the mind, which he might seek in vain in thrice repeated prayers, and an endless bead-roll of litanies.

This wide separation from the ancient faith gives to many of the pamphlets in this collection a strong resemblance to those published among us in the time of the Puritan controversy; and this resemblance is further strengthened by the situation of the French Protestants during the regency of Catherine and the ascendancy of the Guises. The Huguenots soon learned how vain it was to trust either the fair speeches of the Queen Regent, or the pretended neutrality of the house of Lorraine, and they went armed to their meetings, and placed sentinels to watch, and escorted their ministers from place to place with the utmost secrecy; while not infrequently, in spite of all these precautions, the religious assembly was dispersed by the sword, and men, women, and children savagely killed.

A strong testimony to the general peaceableness of these poor people, is borne in a letter

addressed by M. de Rabodanges to the Marshal de Matignon, and now first published from the MS. He states that he has—

—put down the preachings and meetings of ministers in this city, (Alençon), but the people were in this, as in all other things, very obedient, only with great sorrow and many tears, hoping that they might obtain from the king and queen permission to assemble without any minister, to make their accustomed prayers, as has been permitted to those of the city of Meaux.... They would depend on your goodness and humanity, and the promises which you have made them, that they shall not be called to account for what has passed, and which, indeed, belongs to their consciences, since they desire to remain as they always have been,—good, faithful, and affectionate servants to the king. And that you furthermore should perceive the justice of their case, I have been much astonished in these parts to find, *that though there are a good number of Catholics, they nevertheless live with those of the new religion in such great amity and sufferance, that I have never heard a single complaint*; and I can say that it is one of the most peaceable towns in the whole kingdom.

But this representation would have been of little avail, and Protestantism would have been crushed in France a century earlier, had not the peculiar position in which Catherine de Medicis, as regent, found herself, forced her to tolerate, at least, the reformed faith, that its adherents might form some counterbalance to the overwhelming power of the Guises. To the most celebrated of these brothers, Francis, the duke, the rapid growth of heresy offered a most favourable opportunity of becoming the idol of the church and of the people, and through those means, of pursuing those ambitious plans, which pointed only to the crown of France as their termination. There was much of the cavalier about the character of the Duke of Guise, (loyalty excepted); and when we contemplate his whole-length portrait in Brantôme, as mounted on his coal-black palfrey, named Moret, whose brodered housings almost swept the ground, "with a good sword, which he well knew how to use, by his side, and in doublet and hose of crimson satin, for he loved red and scarlet, and his black velvet cap on his head, with its crimson plume so gallantly placed, for he loved handsome feathers," we seem to be reading the description of some royalist leader, setting forth upon his expedition against the Roundheads. And the vindication which he offers, in answer to the charges brought against him in respect to the massacre of the Protestants at Vassy, in its contempt for the people, and anxious desire to vindicate "those persons of honour" who were with him, might well pass for the justification of Prince Rupert or Lord Goring. The pistol of Jean Poltrot, however, put an end to his ambitious schemes, almost as soon as they appeared to promise success; but, unhappily for the French Protestants, his more dangerous brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine, still remained, and his young son, educated in the principles of the Guises and the De Medici, signalized his majority by becoming the chief actor in the tragedy of St. Barthelemy.

To the English reader the strifes of the Queen Regent, and this ambitious family, offer little interest; except as they illustrate the policy of the court of France, and thus vindicate what has too frequently been termed, the narrow-minded and bigoted policy of the ministers of Elizabeth. In the grasping ambition and almost unmatched duplicity of the Guises, we perceive how dangerous, both as a rival queen, and as a state prisoner, their niece Mary Stuart must have been; and when we find them at the head of a powerful confederacy, sanctioned by the Pope, secretly encouraged by the King of Spain, and if not encouraged, certainly not opposed, in reality, by the court of France—and this confederacy,

formed for the express purpose of extirpating the Protestants—the rigour which placed Mary, who was in communication with them, in close confinement, and the cruelty which denied her a confessor, were precautions demanded for the safety both of Scotland and England. We have heard much of the terrors of our great-grandfathers, when threatened with a visit from the Pretender, but the Pretender, even when aided by all the power of France, was never half so much an object of real and justifiable alarm, as the "beautiful and unfortunate Mary Stuart."

It was the peculiar misfortune of France, that, at this period, every leading character was destitute of principle, and, to whichever side the Protestants turned, they were secure of nothing, except that they would be betrayed. We had hoped to have found in these volumes some characteristic traits of that "chief deceiver" Catherine de Medici, but we have been disappointed, for, with the exception of one or two letters, there is very little respecting her. From a long letter of advice, sent by her to her son, Charles IX., on his attaining his majority, and now first published, we give the following extracts—they will exhibit "the wearisome state" which was demanded of the French kings.

I would wish that you would take a certain hour for your time of rising; that then all the princes, lords, and captains may come in, that you may speak to them, and they see you, which will much content them. This done, let them go away, except the four secretaries, and then give an hour or so to hear dispatches, but do not pass ten o'clock before you go to mass. Let all the princes and lords go with you, and not, as I have seen you, accompanied by none but your archers; and when you come from mass, dine, if it is late, if not, walk for your health, but do not be later than eleven o'clock before you dine. And, after dinner, at least, twice a week, give audience, which will infinitely please your subjects, and, after that, retire, and visit me or the Queen; \* \* \* and, about three o'clock, you should go out, either on horseback or on foot, to show yourself, to the contentment of the nobility, and to pass the time in some praiseworthy exercise, if not every day, at least once or twice a week. After this, go to supper with your family, and after supper, twice a week, hold a public ball, for I have heard the King, your grandfather (Francis I.) say, that it was necessary to devote two days to live in peace with the French; and, that they might love their king, they must be kept merry, and occupied about something. \* \* \* Every evening, as soon as it is night, let the grand master command the maitre d'hôtel to cause torches to be lighted in all the halls and passages, and at the four corners of the court-yard; and on the stairs let there be cressets; and never allow the castle-gate to be opened unless the king be awake, that no person may enter, be he who he may; and, also, as soon as the king is in bed, let all the doors be shut, and let the keys be placed under the bolster of his bed!

One of the most curious reprints in this collection is, the "Advice to the King, respecting the Reformation of the University of Paris," addressed, by Peter Ramus, to Charles IX., and which, in no small degree, increased the detestation in which he was already held by his brother professors, on account of the innovating spirit which he had exhibited in regard to learning, no less than to religion. The details, respecting the abuses in this important university, which, during the Middle Ages, held first rank among similar institutions, are curious. In consequence of the numerous demands for "candles for the regent," "gloves for the bedel"—"for the cope of the rector"—"for the tapestry of St. Luke"—"for banquets of the regents"—"for fuel and sugar-plums at the examination"†

† We were almost inclined to believe that this word was a misprint, until we recollected that this stern and slaughter-loving age was, strange as it may appear, emphatically characterized by a taste for sugar-plums. In a bill of fare, for the dinner given to Catherine de Medici, by the Archbishop of Paris, we find the entry of "sixty-eight pounds of sugar-plums, flavoured with cinnamon

[*pour le feu et pour la dragée de l'examen*—the expenses of the student mounted up to 881 livres in two years, and the consequence was, that there were almost as many tutors as scholars; and these tutors, men distinguished rather for their love of gain, than for their devotion to learning. It is against this system, therefore, and especially against the "dinners which, besides others, it is customary to give to the professors and their associates, in hope of obtaining the most honourable stations," that Ramus chiefly inveighs, and no wonder he became an object of hatred to all the "square caps," who preferred dozing over "the book of Sentences," and eating the good dinners provided at their pupils' expense, to arousing themselves to run the race of learning against the scholars of Geneva. The name of Peter Ramus is, in the present day, chiefly known as that of the professor who waged an unceasing war against the dialectics of the schools, and especially against that idol of the Middle Ages, Aristotle. From this "Advice," however, we think there is no reason to suppose, that he held the study of dialectics in that supreme contempt which many writers have represented; for we must bear in mind, that this pursuit was followed in the universities at this period, and especially in Paris, to the exclusion almost of every other; and that, as the advocate of a more efficient system of teaching theology, he could not but censure the practice of "setting certain vile and worthless rubbish of propositions, drawn from a barbarous age," in opposition to the study of the Scriptures. It has been a very frequent remark, that profound scholars, especially those attached to the study of the classics, seldom, if ever, write in their native tongue with ease or elegance. The French reformers present a singular contradiction to this opinion, for we have seldom read a style more remarkably flowing, than that of Ramus and Beza, and even of Calvin. There are many eloquent passages in the work now before us; and it is delightful to observe the earnest devotion to the cause of learning, which actuated the French reformers, and which led them to inculcate on their followers the absolute duty of seeking the acquisition of knowledge,—for the neglect of which they would be fearfully responsible.

There are three short memoirs, notices, we might rather say, of Calvin in this collection; to the longest of these we turned with some interest, because, as the work of a Roman Catholic layman, and published at Lyons within a few years after his death, we thought we should obtain some curious information. This "life, manners, and acts," as it is called, written by a physician named M. Bolsec, is however one of the most contemptible productions ever put forth by the most virulent party feeling. Calvin is in it not merely accused of theft, murder, and atheism, but a whole chapter is devoted to his "*gourmandise effrénée*," of which, as an instance, it is gravely related, that he liked hot suppers, good wine, and "bread made expressly for him of fine flour, with sugar, anise, and cinnamon, mixed together with rose-water." Now this story, even if there be any truth in it, gives us a more favourable opinion, rather than otherwise, of the Geneva reformer; for it seems to show that the stern theologian, the fierce opponent of the loftiest men in Europe, could yet, among his friends and companions, lay aside his austerity, and enjoy the gifts of Providence. And that Calvin in social life, was by no means the cold ascetic so generally supposed, seems proved by many of his private letters, which display a graceful badinage, and a spirited playfulness, that would absolutely astound those who know

and orange flower;" and contemporary writers remark, that the *confit-box* was as indispensable to the gentlemen as the snuff-box in the present day.

him only as the author of the "Institutes." His memoir by Theodore Beza, and which was originally prefixed to his posthumous commentary on Joshua, is very pleasing from the deep feeling which pervades it, and from the simple beauty of the style. It is eulogistic, but it would have been discreditable to a close friendship of so many years standing, had it not been so. The third notice is by a doctor of the Sorbonne; it instances a curious fact in the life of Calvin, that at the age of seventeen he was found guilty of contumacy, by the Chapter of the University of Paris: thus early did the future reformer commence his career; or, as the learned doctor more properly remarks, "already did this little viper begin to gnaw the bowels of his holy mother church, from whom he had received his nourishment."

It has been peculiarly unfortunate for the fame of Calvin, that he should be known to modern times only as a theologian, and even in this character, only, as it were, at second-hand. Thousands to whom his name is familiar as the propounder of religious dogmas, are altogether ignorant that this stern polemic was one of the profoundest classical scholars in Europe, and that Geneva, under his auspices, was the city eminent beyond all others for her liberal patronage of letters. Still less do Englishmen know, that for those clear and unanswerable definitions of the limits of political power, which formed the basis of every argument used by the opponents of arbitrary rule, both in the times of the Long Parliament, and at the subsequent Revolution, they are indebted to the writings of Calvin. It was the free political principles inculcated at Geneva, that caused the crowned heads of Europe to cast a jealous eye on that little republic; and it was not the abstract doctrines brought from thence, but the more practical doctrine of resistance to unconstitutional power, that induced Elizabeth to pause ere she gave permission to the exiles to re-enter their native land. It is on these accounts, that we should like to see a full and fair memoir of this great French reformer: we have been told, that the late Dr. McCre had been engaged for some years on this very work; a work admirably suited to his talents, and which we trust may yet see the light, for, while Calvin the theologian can be claimed but by one section of the Christian church, Calvin the reformer, and the scholar, belongs to the whole church, and to all literary Europe.

*List of New Books.*—Cherpillon's Book of Versions, 12mo. 3s. 6d.—The Nursery Book, 16mo. 3s. 6d.—The Poetical Forget-Me-Not, 32mo. 1s. 6d.—Marshall Hall's Lectures on the Nervous System, 8vo. 7s. 6d.—Gleig's Family History of England, Vol. 1. 8vo. 6s. 6d.—Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress, (Kidd's Edition,) 100 engravings by Bonner, and Notes, by the Rev. W. Mason, royal 18mo. 5s.; fine paper, 8s.—Mayo's Outlines of Humane Pathology, 8vo. 18s.—Whateley's Charges and other Tracts collected, 8vo. 12s.—The Brother's Controversy, post 8vo. 6s.—Life and Times of Milton, by W. Carpenter, 8vo. 3s. 6d.—A Day in the Woods, by Thomas Miller, Basket Maker, 8vo. 10s. 6d.—The Baptist in America, by Drs. Cox & Hoby, 12mo. 8s.—Bishop Jeremy Taylor on Repentance, edited by the Rev. W. H. Hale, 8vo. 6s. 6d.—A Narrative of a Journey from Lima to Para, by Lieut. Smyth, and Mr. F. Lowe, 8vo. 12s.—Allan Cunningham's Gallery of Pictures, 2 vols. royal 8vo. 2l. 14s.; India proofs, 6l. 6s.—Willis's Inklings of Adventure, 3 vols. post 8vo. 31s. 6d.—Life of the Rev. J. Fletcher, by Benson, new edit. 8vo. 8s.—Works of the Rev. J. Fletcher, new edit. Vol. I. 12mo. 4s. 6d.—Memoirs of Mrs. Mortimer, by Agnes Bulmer, 2nd edit. 12mo. 5s. 6d.—Melville's Sermons at Cambridge, 2nd edit. 8vo. 5s. 6d.—Dr. Andrew Combe's Physiology of Digestion in reference to Dietetics, 8vo. 7s. 6d.—Fisher's Syria, Holy Land, &c. illustrated, Part 1. 2s.—Priors of Prague, 3 vols. royal 12mo. 31s. 6d.—Simeon's Works, Vol. V. 8vo. 10s.—Faber on the Primitive Doctrine of Election, 8vo. 15s.—Gordon's Genealogical Chart, 11s. on canvas.—*Les Cœurs Exilés* and Conversations of Napoleon, new edit. (to be completed in 4 vols.) Vol. I. 12mo. 5s. 6d.—The Familiar and Practical Latin Grammar, by A. C. Abeille, 2 vols. 12mo. 4s.—Colquhoun's Inquiry into Animal Magnetism, 2 vols. 12mo. 18s.—Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry, Part III. 1s. swd.—Bickersteth on Prayer, 14th edit. 8vo. 5s.—Colburn's Novelist, Vol. XII. (Devereux), 6s.—Colburn's Novelist, (Tremaine), 8vo. 6s. 6d.—Howell's Sermons, by Bowdler, Vol. I. & II. 8vo. 12s. each.—On the Purity of Immanuel's Nature, 12mo. 2s. 6d.—Sacred Classics, Vol. XXVII. (Bishop Butler's Fifteen Sermons on the Nature of Man,) 4s. 6d.—

Lessons in Machinery Drawing, by David Scott, Engineer, imp. folio, 7s. 6d.—Charges against Custom and Public Opinion, by the Rev. H. Jeffreys, A.M. 12mo. 3s. 6d.—The Autobiography of Martin Luther, by John Parker Lawson, M.A. 12mo. 5s.

## ORIGINAL PAPERS

WALTER THE WITLESS.

When the wild winds howl, and the white waves roar,  
And the hills rock where they stand,  
When the hurricane heaves at the back of the shore  
Till the cliffs stoop over the strand,  
On the mist-covered peak, while the thick rains pour  
I shake my dark locks at the ocean hoar,  
And hoot him away from the land!

In my tree-hollowed skiff, with my feet gun'ale wide,  
While the green rack garters my knee,  
Sculling bravely I swamp it half under the tide,  
Like a mast that peeps up from the sea;  
Like a gray gull at roost on the steep wave side,  
Up and down, at my ease, I can steadily ride  
On the surge at high gallop with me.

The village loons shout to behold me aloft  
With my hand in the nest of the eam,  
Hanging back o'er the lake far beneath me, and oft  
By a stalk of wild heath or of fern;  
Yet in spite of the beak at my eyes, fair and soft  
I bring down an eaglet, to teach at my croft  
"Cuckoo!" if the kestrel would learn.

Good lack! how my half-crazed mother, with screams,  
Called me down when perched on the spire,  
Like a swallow that chuckles for joy in the beams  
Of the sun's mellow evening fire;  
Forsooth as if Walter had walked in his dreams,  
When the huts plain as hives he saw, and the streams  
Like bright threads run thro' the shire!

Then who can like Wat in summertime away  
On the long bough sweeping the lynn,  
Nor fear as he slumbers the warm noon away  
To sidle forgetfully in?

Yet as safe as the bee on the wild-rose spray,  
That bends with his weight till it kisses the bay,  
I drowse o'er the deep river din.

But at night, O rare! when the beldames yawn,  
I slip to the churchyard green,  
Round the new-opened graves, and sculls glossy gnawn,  
And coffin-plates glittering sheen,  
To dance with the white people there till dawn—  
Whoop hollo! away to the moonbright lawn,  
For the elves call Walter I ween!

G. D.

## KEAN.

In November 1813, that brilliant, but irregular, spirit, Edmund Kean, after a life of privation, perseverance, and disappointment, such as would have triumphed over talent, and could only be subdued by genius, arrived in London to try that "first appearance" which was destined at once to raise him from want to luxury—from obscurity to splendid popularity—from poverty to unmanageable wealth. His life, from the moment he touched London, was rapid and bewildering; and he was lost in the frenzies of passion, flattery, and success. We have had submitted to us a few letters from Dr. Drury, his earliest and kindest patron and friend—from himself—from Mr. Whitbread, and others, which form a sketchy, but vivid, piece of biography in themselves; and we are satisfied that our readers will be interested in the development of the feelings, hopes, and fortunes, which a perusal of those letters will give. The following are the desponding murmurs of the toil-worn traveller during the last struggles up that "Steep, where Fame's proud temple shines afar!"

"Oct. 20th, 1813.

Theatre, Barnstable.

"Sir,—The state of suspense I have been in on account of my poor little boy, who has just recovered from a most alarming illness, prevented me from the pleasure of addressing you before. With a heart filled with anxiety, I now request the issue of your kind application to the Proprietors of the Drury Lane Theatre, if Sir, soliciting your advice would not be



deemed intrusive. I would learn, whether a personal application to Mr. Whitbread, aided by the powerful influence of Dr. Drury's recommendation, would not be more serviceable than distant correspondence.

"I have offers from Mr. Elliston, for a new Theatre in Wick-street; his proposals are by no means advantageous, and the nature of the entertainments, I am afraid, detrimental to the reputation of a dramatic actor: it is, however, a reserve in case of the failure of the more desirable point.

"I leave Barnstaple for Dorchester on Wednesday or Thursday next, (where I play six nights). I need not say how proud I shall feel by the favour of a line from you; in the meantime, Sir, allow me to thank you for all the flattering marks of attention I have received from you, which must be ever foremost in my remembrance; and with sincere respect,

"I sign myself, yours obediently,

"Rev. Dr. Drury."

"E. KEAN."

"In consequence of the communications I have received from Mr. Grenfell, upon the subject of Mr. Kean, I take the liberty of requesting you will ask that gentleman whether, compatible with his engagements, he could take a journey to London in the course of next week. If I receive your answer in the affirmative, I am sure there will be no difficulty in providing the means which may be necessary to defray the expense of his journey.

"The representations made of that gentleman's talents in your letters to Mr. Grenfell, are such as to make me very desirous that Mr. Arnold should see him; and as my stay in town is likely to be short, I anticipate what I am sure would be the wish of the sub-committee of management, by availing myself of your friendly feeling towards Mr. Kean, in opening this channel of intercourse with that gentleman. Trusting to your pardon for this intrusion, I have the honour to be, Sir, your obedient servant,

"S. WHITBREAD."

"Dover-street, Nov. 5, 1813.

"Rev. Dr. Drury."

"London, Dec. 22nd, 1813.

"Dear Sir,—The hopes which, through your kind interest, were on the point of realization, are as suddenly and unexpectedly blighted. I believe I mentioned to you, in a former letter, that I had entered into a negotiation with Mr. Elliston; this negotiation he has artfully dressed up into an engagement, and has absolutely claimed my services for Little Drury—though the whole profession, and not only the profession, but the public, upbraids him for his unprecedented act of persecution. Yet, to my sorrow, I find he has a legal claim on my services; my salary, in consequence of his arguments, is withdrawn from Drury Lane, though, in fact, I am of no utility to him, as Mr. Russell is engaged to him as *acting manager*, the post he offered me. I have stated, by letter, the affair to Mr. Whitbread, who is not at present in town, and wait impatiently for his reply. I have by letter, and person, appealed to the feelings of Mr. Elliston, and have endeavoured to reconcile the matter by the most *humble persuasion*, but all in vain, he has me in his power, and seems determined to employ it to the ruin of myself and family. The salary he offers me is 3*l.* per week; that which he has deprived me of, three times the sum, and a reputation which it is impossible I shall ever have a chance of gaining again. Thus am I placed, Sir, in the largest and most expensive city in the world, without friends, money, or situation, for the extreme of indigence shall never compel me to enter the walls of any theatre whereof Mr. Elliston is manager. With every feeling of gratitude, Sir, for your endeavours to serve me,

"I am, with the greatest respect,

"E. KEAN."

"21, Cecil-street, Strand.

"Rev. Dr. Drury."

Here "a change comes o'er the spirit of the dream!" The Dorchester labourer has become Fame's favourite!—"Lady Elizabeth desires her best regards!"

"My dear Sir,—I have again the agreeable task assigned to me by the Sub-Committee, of acknowledging your distinguished merit, and the service you have rendered to the theatre; and of informing

you that Five shares have been ordered to be made out in your name, which I am to present to you on the part of the management, as a token of their due appreciation of your talents, and their value.

"Those shares will be dated on the 1st of August, and, no doubt, you will make the dividends recoverable upon them at the end of the next season, of valuable consideration.

"I will lodge them wherever you may please to direct, or they shall be kept for you by me, or at the theatre.

"I am too much interested in your welfare, not to wish you most sincerely health and success in your summer excursion, and that you may return to us with unabated power.

"All depends upon yourself! I could write volumes to you, but you might deem me impertinent, and I will abstain; and that sentence comprehends the whole. I cannot, however, refrain from saying, that if it be true that you are to play at Cheltenham and at Gloucester on the same day, morning and evening, I wish it had been otherwise.

"Spare yourself for the sake of your health and reputation; in every way spare yourself, and with best regards to Mrs. Kean, believe me,

"My dear Sir, faithfully,

"Your friend and servant,

"SAMUEL WHITBREAD.

"Dover-street, July 16, 1814.

"Lady Elizabeth desires her best regards to you and Mrs. Kean."

"To E. Kean, Esq."

The following kind and sensible letters from the late Mr. Douglas Kinnaird are worthy of that gentlemanly and excellent man. It will be seen that Kean had soon acquired the captious niceties of the stage in the acceptance or refusal of allotted parts:—

"Dear Sir,—I beg to acknowledge the receipt of a bill for 100*l.* in a letter from Mrs. Kean. I am sorry to be obliged to apprise you formally, but distinctly, that I have given you no permission to go to Edinburgh in October next. *It is not in my power* to give you any such permission. I told you that *I was sure the Committee would do everything in their power to meet your wishes*; and I am sure they will. But there has been no opportunity of the Committee deciding upon it. I will bring the matter before the first meeting, that the presence of the different members will allow to take place. At this moment I should very much doubt the Committee being able to give an answer; but if they were pressed, it would be decidedly in the negative. You must be aware that we must see how the vessel sails, and what the enemy are about, before we consent to give leave of absence to the most efficient part of the crew. You must not be surprised at my writing thus *precisely* on such a subject, as any misunderstanding of the nature of that I am writing, would place me in such a predicament, that I must refuse any personal communication on matters of business.

"It will be necessary, I fear, that you be in town by the 1st or 3rd of September. We have got a most beautiful Monody on the Death of Sheridan for you to speak. You will receive it by to-morrow's coach. We intend to open with the School for Scandal, and follow it with all Sheridan's plays. We wish you to play Joseph Surface, (*for the first night only*); of course, if you like it, and hit the town, I would continue it. The lines you may guess the author of; but one man could write such. He has written to entreat you might speak them. You will drown the audience with their own tears. I will bet my life on six or eight 500*l.* houses. After that I should not doubt your being able to go to Edinburgh. I hear Miss O'Neill has done nothing at Newcastle or at Glasgow; pretty well at Edinburgh. Let me hear from you.

"Your's faithfully,

"DOUGLAS KINNAIRD."

"To E. Kean, Esq."

"P.S. I am sure you will rejoice at an opportunity of doing honour to Sheridan's memory."

"Pall Mall, August 28th, 1816.

"I wrote yesterday to you at Exeter.

"Dear Sir,—I fear that you, or some very injudicious friend, must have already made known your

unwillingness to speak the monody. I have already heard of it from some of Mr. Sheridan's family. I have taken upon myself to *contradict* it. I intreat you to think better of it. I think it to your credit as an actor, to your honour as a man, to speak it. I tremble for the ill-will you will excite towards yourself by the refusal. For my own part, I know not how your *warmest friend* could make your defence, either as an actor or as a man, for refusing it. All who were friends to Sheridan, or admirers of his talents, (and who were not?) must form decided opinions on the matter.

"I am, dear Sir, your sincere friend,

"DOUGLAS KINNAIRD.

"To E. Kean, Esq."

"P.S. *Is not Mr. Pope with you?* I hear, he says, we have used him ill. He *dare* not say so before me; I wish he would say it in my presence, before 1000 persons.

"P.S. No. 2. We shall make a deal of work in the papers beforehand, if you speak it. Pray let me hear by return of post."

"Pall Mall, August 27, 1816.

"Dear Sir,—I have received three letters from you, declining either to play the part of Joseph, or to pay the tribute to the memory of Mr. Sheridan, (the son of an actor,) by speaking the Monody on his death. With regard to the *terms* in which you have addressed me, and the imputation of unworthy motives, I beg you to believe I shall act, as I have ever done towards you, by forgetting whatever it might not be creditable to you that I should remember. I cannot give you a stronger proof of my sincerity, than by addressing you again, and thereby subjecting myself to a repetition of the terms of your letters. Although I imagined you rather liked the character of Joseph, I confess I should not have proposed it, but under the circumstances of your doing it out of respect to Mr. Sheridan's memory. You do not like to try it,—and there the matter ends; for I do not think the theatre would be a gainer, by the receipt of thousands, at the expense of any of your professional reputation. With regard to the Monody, I take the liberty of requesting you to reconsider your determination thereon, and I therefore return it; I think it only fit for you, because I think that the *subject*, and the lines, ought to be in the hands of the first actor of the day, and in none other. I anticipate wonderful effects from it if spoken by you—an audience in tears—a public in raptures. On the contrary, I would not have it known that you had refused to speak them on any consideration, *for your sake*, for I think the public would think you [had] been very *wrongly* advised. Pray think better of it. If you persist in refusing to speak the Monody, I am not aware that your presence is required in the first week of September. I am not conscious of having ever given you *wrong* advice; I know that had advisers sometimes have access to you, for bad purposes of their own. I hope this is not the case now. Were Mrs. Siddons on the stage, I *know* she would have been delighted to speak them.

"Your obedient servant,

"E. Kean, Esq."

"DOUGLAS KINNAIRD."

The following complimentary notes and epistles are trifling in themselves, but they prove the power which Kean had acquired over the world of fashion:—

"Lady Caroline Lamb presents her compliments to Mr. Kean, and wishes to know whether so great an admirer as she is of his talents, may venture to suggest to him one question:—Why, when his Othello was perfect, has he altered his manner of saying two things?—'Is she honest?' and 'A fool! a fool!' It is not fair to find even a blemish in what is certainly unequalled excellence; but as three or four times Lady Caroline had heard him say these two things differently, and, to her mind, perfectly, she hopes he will forgive her for thus venturing to remonstrate against even this slight alteration. It is but very seldom now that she has an opportunity of going out; but whenever she sees Mr. Kean act, she remembers the lines in 'The Rosciad' on Garrick, and thinks they must apply even more to himself:—

If manly sense, if nature linked with art,  
If thorough knowledge of the human heart,

If powers of acting vast and unconfined,  
If fewest faults with greatest beauties joined,  
If strong expression and strange powers which lie  
Within the magic circle of the eye;  
If feelings which few hearts like his can know,  
And which no face so well as his can show,  
Deserve the preference,—Garrick, take the chair,  
Nor quit it till thou place an equal there.

"Perhaps they have been so often applied to Mr. Kean, that he may deem it a great loss of his time to read them now; for this, however, and for what she has ventured to suggest, she begs to be forgiven.

"Tuesday Evening, Melbourne House."

"October 17, 1818.

"The Duchess of Devonshire presents her compliments to Mr. Kean, and requests of him to tell her whether it is possible for him to act Othello before the 20th: the Duchess is obliged to leave England on account of her health, or would not have troubled Mr. Kean, as she has the greatest gratification in seeing him in all his parts; but still she most particularly desired to see him in Othello; and never can forget the impression on her mind the only time that she did see him perform it."

"Mr. Chandos Leigh presents his compliments to Mr. Kean, and requests his acceptance of a copy of Shakespeare's Plays, as a small testimony of the high gratification Mr. L. has received from the superior genius and exquisite skill displayed by Mr. Kean, in embodying forth the fine conceptions of our great dramatic bard."

"Albany, February the 28th, 1814."

"My dear Mrs. Kean,—I cannot deny myself the pleasure of telling you I saw De Montfort last night in all the terrible glory of his first appearance; and long may the triumph be perpetuated! I long to see Mrs. J. Baillie, whom my eyes sought vainly in the theatre, but who was, I find, in the dress circle. I do not know that I ever saw Mr. Kean more impressive;—never can I forget the awful expression of his face after the murder had been perpetrated. I shudder even now at the recollection of those agonies, which baffled all powers of language to describe; but I have no time to write, though, if I saw you, I could find much to say. Health and prosperity attend you.

"Ever your attached,

"17, Warren-street,  
"Wednesday Morning."

"E. BAKER."

"When you have lived as long as I have, you will find out, my dear Madam, that half the world is made up of *envy, hatred, and malice*. I have heard many idle stories about my friend Kean; and being interested, as I am, in his welfare, and the prosperity of both of you, I always endeavoured to disprove what I knew originated in falsehood and malevolence; and I cannot give you a better proof of the same, than by sending you the enclosed letter I received in answer to one I wrote, because a person had told me what I knew was not true, and I sent this answer to them when I received it from J. C. Beaumont. I do not know anything of Miss Tidswell myself, and am sorry she should wish to be an enemy to those who, I am sure, will always act with gratitude towards her. Kean cannot do better than follow the advice, *upon all occasions*, of two such excellent men as Mr. Whitbread and Mr. Grenfell; and I am also certain, that your mind and heart towards him has the right bias, which ought to regulate it. Depend upon it, I never will believe idle stories. I wish you both happiness and comfort, which, I am sure, is in store for you, and which it is impossible either of you should be so unwise as to sacrifice. Say everything kind from me to Kean. I go to Oxford to-morrow, otherwise would have called upon him.

"I am yours very faithfully,

"Essex."

"Harley-street, June 11th, 1817.

"Excuse this scrawl, as I write in haste."

"We now come to what Kean terms 'a few abstracted reflections among the Buxton Hills.' The letter speaks, perhaps a little incoherently, for itself.

"Buxton, 15th June.

"My very dear Sir,—The total revolution in the affairs of Drury Lane Theatre renders it consistent

with my interest and reputation to leave England, till I am recalled by its restoration, or some Phoenix-like phenomenon may rise from its decline. Among the regrets attendant on such an event, and of which our fragile natures are susceptible, I feel most poignant that of being compelled to resign that office, of which I have been so proud—the Mastership of the Fund, before, too, I could be the instrument of those benefits, which it was my duty and ambition to achieve, as a small return for the great honour conferred on me in the election. Into your hands, my dear Sir, I beg leave to resign my charge; from your generous feelings the claimants will find a friend; and from your deliberate and firm judgment, the institution will be benefited in the officer. If I may presume to offer advice, it is, that the Committee should be as industrious as they can to raise the annuity of our dependents, which is at present too limited to afford them the comforts of life. This can only be accomplished by exciting a greater portion of our brethren to subscribe.

"So much has been said on this subject, that 'kindness to our fellow-creatures,' 'comforting the aged,' 'visiting the sick,' &c. have lost their effects, and appear no more than other hackneyed phrases; but surely our meals will not be taken with less appetite, in the reflection that we have contributed to the board of others: our pillow not less grateful from the thought of sheltering the houseless. I feel my heart expand with these feelings, but cannot find language to express them: I cannot bring my words to the elevation of my ideas, nor my ideas to the sublimity of my subject. To your mind I leave the interpretation—to your hand the execution. If (among the idle chit-chat of the day,) my affairs should be the subject of discussion in your presence, do not let my enemies influence society, by attributing my conduct to wrong causes, or suffer the most glorious of all characters—a British public, to imagine that I leave them with disgust or ingratitude. No, my dear Sir, trumpet to the world that every pulsation of my heart acknowledges that fostering kindness which has given reputation to an unknown name, which *name*, a passport through the world, gives prosperity to my posterity. I give you, sir, these weapons for my defence. I would not condescend to ask another advocate, it is my popularity that has raised me these host of enemies; it is my popularity which has created the late cabal, that has occupied the public attention, and has been so baneful to my peace; but the unimportant persons employed against me were but the engines of a greater power; the handle was behind the curtain, and which I could have exposed, had my leisure and capacity been sufficient to bring the public eye to '*peep through the blanket of the dark*.' My professional experience, the high rank the public had allotted to me, combined with natural irritability, could not brook the total ignorance, and the contempt for talent which was hourly manifested in the conduct of our managers. One gentleman tells me, with perfect *sang froid*, that *mediocre ability is preferable to first rate*; a second, equally delicate, that actors rate too high, we are in the law but servants, and should, like the Spartan Helots, annually endure flagellation, to remind us of our station; a third, that he was row'd over the Thames, by moonlight, by a waterman, who sung infinitely better than Braham; another, that he had been the means of introducing to the theatre a lady, on small salary, far exceeding in talent either Miss O'Neill or Mrs. Siddons. Laughable as all this may appear to sensible minds, my nature was disgusted, and I believe I did not treat the management with that respect they conceived themselves entitled to. Their unskilfulness, encouraged by the invidious breath of some clever villains, to whom they lent their ears, and whose interest it was to lower me in public estimation, that I might become levelled to their own rank, is the ground-work of the artful machinations employed to rob me of my reputation. From this source some suborned miscreants have lent their name to the venality of newspapers, and this the current that, for a short time, drives me to America; but inform them, that I shall soon return, when my enemies shall have repented of their follies, and my friends open their hands and hearts to receive me. It has been suggested to me, that in these contentions I should have employed the public prints in my cause: it

might have been prudent, but it is a system my nature revolts at. I found, in a few months after my appearance in London, that the general voice had placed me far above their censure or their praise, and I never hired or solicited them, in consequence of which most of them have treated me with the greatest scurrility—but I do not think they have either done harm or good. I cannot help deploring the fate of those who lie at their mercy; their editors are generally ignorant, and always self-sufficient men, and act from party, not judgment; neither one way or the other are they ever right in theatrical concerns; and it is horrible to think that the influence they carry over unthinking minds enables them sometimes to turn the current of success, blunt the edge of talent, and break the heart of its possessor. I have been fortunate; my vessel has triumphed amid all the storms they have raised against me. These are a few abstracted reflections of mine among the Buxton hills: you may make them public or not, according to your discretion. Wishing you and your family every happiness the world can afford you, I close my letter in the words of an author, which gives our minds employment and our hearts adoration,

Thou art e'en as just a man as e'er my  
Conversation met withal.

"EDMUND KEAN."

"To Mr. J. Powell."

The two letters to Mr. Clarke, of the house of Coutts & Co., indicate more prudence than might be expected. But it was only *written prudence*, we fear.

"New York, Feb. 7th, 1826.

"Dear Sir,—I sent by the last packet a bill for 600*l.*, which makes 1600*l.* since my arrival in this country. I have given my lawyer, Mr. George Siggell, of No. 15, Brewer-street, authority to draw upon you to the amount of 300*l.*, on condition of his placing in your possession the lease of Woodend House—persecution and calamity render men suspicious, and I shall not be perfectly at ease till that lease is in the hands of Coutts & Co.; you will, therefore, not pay the 300*l.*, which he will apply for, till you receive the lease. Whatever monies is over the 600*l.*, allowed for Woodend House, Mrs. Kean, &c., be good enough to purchase for me in the three per cents.: before you receive this, much more money will be on the way—I shall myself be in England by the end of July. My glorious masters, the American public, have granted me permission to visit England, on condition of returning by November, and never acting again in the country of my birth; all of which have been promised, by public oath. My success here has exceeded my most sanguine expectations: wealth, fame, and friendship have taken place of envy, falsehood, and malignity.

"I shall continue to send money by every packet, which you will appropriate to the funds.

"I am, dear Sir,

"Your friend,

"E. KEAN."

"To W. Clarke, Esq.  
"Coutts & Co."

"Montreal, Aug. 8th, 1826.

"My dear Sir,—You have no doubt been surprised at receiving no further remittances from me since the 1st of April, but that terrible enemy, the gout, has been a terrible barrier to my pursuits. I am at present restored to health, fame, and prosperity. My professional friends inform me, that I may pursue my career for some years, uninterrupted by my deadly foe, and I promise myself, that in the next eight months I shall have reaped a great dramatic harvest; as fast as I can procure it it shall be deposited with Coutts & Co. I have one ambition still: it is, to possess Drury Lane Theatre, and it is that only can restore me to my country. I have made my proposals: if they accept them, there will be money by the sale of my Bute property, with what I shall send in the interval of interchange of letters, will be quite sufficient to give the proprietors confidence; how the last lessee ever did that, the devil himself only knows. In this case, I shall again embrace my countrymen with affection: if not, I bid them farewell for ever. Make the most of all money that I shall send. I understand that funds are low; it is the best time to continue buying in. In another



fortnight I hope to send you something of more consequence.

"Dear Sir,

"With great and grateful friendship,

"EDMUND KEAN.

"To W. Clarke, Esq."

We know not who Mr. Corkendale is, or was, but we do know Mr. Morris. Richard the Third must, it seems, stand aside on the wherry festival.

"London, March 29th.

"Dear Corkendale,—I was in hopes to have delivered the inclosed in person, but duties are imperative, and the hard-hearted managers will not let me off. I shall not therefore be able to see Bute till after my return from France. This is the third time I have paid those infernal taxes; added to which, they had nearly made a rupture between myself and valued friend, Mr. Seymour. I commissioned that gentleman to pay Mr. Irvine his demands; Mr. Irvine writes me, (rather insolently,) that he has not received the money.

"I send him the money a second time, and my friend with a proper indignation repels my reproof, with the fellow's own receipt. I now find it paid a third time in your list of expenditure; what am I to make of all this! I must think with Shakespeare, there is something rotten in the state of Denmark. Perhaps you will take the trouble of making some inquiries. You ask me permission to let your friends see Woodend House: you will much oblige me, by taking the complete authority of the property during my absence, and the more you have your eye towards it, the greater I shall feel the obligation. I am longing like a child to see the dear place once more, but 'necessitas non habet leges,' and so I must be patient.

"Yours very sincerely,

"EDMUND KEAN."

"To Mr. Corkendale."

"Suffolk Street, Pall Mall East,  
May 11, 1830.

"My dear Sir,—I am so circumstanced, as not be able to command my time until Thursday morning, when I will do myself the pleasure of calling upon you about twelve o'clock, on the subject of your letter. I fear tragedy three times a week in the dog days will be too much for us, but more of this when we meet.

"Yours very sincerely,

"To E. Kean, Esq." "D. E. MORRIS."

"Wednesday, May 12, 1830.

"My dear Sir,—To-morrow I give away my annual wherry, consequently for business it is a *dies non*, but if you take pleasure in aquatic scenes, I shall be most happy to see you between the heats, to a good dinner and a hearty welcome; we dine at the Red House, Battersea, and adjourn business till next day.

"Your most obedient,

"EDMUND KEAN."

Poor Kean! what a history of humble energy—dazzling and intoxicating triumph—aristocratic adulation, and "fair occasions gone for ever by!"—is contained in these few light, hasty, and unconnected letters!

#### LETTERS FROM A CADET.

It was my misfortune, on arriving at the Cape, to find that Dr. Smith,† the naturalist, to whom I had provided myself with a letter of introduction, was up the country, at the head of the expedition sent out from Cape Town, for the purpose of scientifically exploring the interior. I was, however, in some measure, consoled for the disappointment, by meeting the Baron Von Ludwig, a resident gentleman of Dutch family, whose ample fortune enables him to indulge his taste for natural history, while his enlightened liberality throws open his magnificent gardens to all strangers, on the simple condition of sending in their names.

When our cards were presented, we were informed, that the Baron himself was in the gardens, and

† Since returned to the Cape, as announced in our last paper.

in a moment he made his appearance, received us with much courtesy, and, finding that some of us possessed a knowledge, and evinced much interest, in botanical subjects, he volunteered to become our guide, led us through the range of his conservatories, drew our notice to his rarest plants, and made us taste of his choicest fruits. His gardens are really beautiful, and laid out with a view to picturesque effect, as well as scientific arrangement. Nor, I was happy to observe, had practical utility been disregarded. The Baron's best endeavours have been directed towards naturalizing several exotic vegetables and fruits, as well as improving the kinds already known; and, seconded by a magnificent climate, he has succeeded to a degree which the originally rather dry and sandy nature of the soil seemed to forbid. The torrid and the temperate zone have both been made to yield up their treasures, and now, within the same enclosures, may be found, in perfect beauty and bearing, the pomegranate, the fig, the peach, the quince, the apple, and the grape. His collection of Australian plants, particularly of Eucalypti and Casuarinae, is very good and complete. His Cactuses are beautiful, and he showed me one covered by the cochineal insect in great numbers, the culture of which he hopes to be able to introduce; and stated, that the experience of some years warrants him in asserting its perfect possibility. He has several varieties of tobacco, of a kind superior to that commonly grown at the Cape, by distributing the seeds of which, and carefully selecting suitable soils, he hopes to be able to improve the character of their cigars, which, to do them justice, are at present very indifferent. The mulberry grows luxuriantly, yet the capabilities thus afforded for the culture of the silk-worm are by no means developed. To this the Baron has directed much attention, and hopes to find in it a most profitable channel towards which to direct Cape industry. Of the coutchouc, or India-rubber plant, he had some thriving specimens, and, hearing of the large demand for that article in England, since the discovery of its applicability to the purpose of rendering cloths and stuffs waterproof, has determined on paying more attention to its habits, and ascertaining how far South Africa may be made capable of yielding a supply. In short, his garden is that of a philanthropist, as well as a philosopher;—his fertile mind teems with projects for the improvement of the colony in which he is settled; and, as I shook hands with him at parting, and promised to send him some specimens, which he wanted, of our Indian plants, I could not help regretting that the shortness of my stay would prevent me attempting to gain the friendship of a man whose high scientific attainments would, in any place, ensure him distinction, but who was doubly honoured, in my eyes, for the ardour with which he devoted them to their truest and noblest end—the advancement of the comforts and happiness of his fellow creatures.

Next day I had an introduction to Sir John Herschel, with whom I had the pleasure of spending the morning, and found him engaged in a course of astronomical researches, which, he said, had already afforded him some most interesting results, and to which he was devoting himself with his usual enthusiasm. He lives about four or five miles out of Cape Town, and has erected a fine reflecting telescope, of considerable dimensions, a refracting telescope, equatorially mounted, and some other necessary instruments. He has made himself universally respected by (in addition to his known acquirements) his amiability, his readiness to assist the distressed, and his anxiety to join in all local schemes of improvement, whether in education, agriculture, commerce, or scientific discovery. It is really a touching sight to behold this man, deservedly ranked amongst the first of the age, leaving an infant school, which has, in a great measure, sprung up under his fostering care and influence, to draw up at the desire of the Cape Literary and Philosophical Society, a body of admirable instructions for the gentlemen composing the scientific expedition at present engaged in exploring the pathless wilds of Southern Africa.

Sir John's astronomical investigations will, of course, be duly given to the world when complete; but he is making a few meteorological observations

which, I doubt not, will be highly valuable, and which I cannot help wishing you could get for your meteorological columns—the more particularly, as I think you were the first to publish a short set of observations made by him on his voyage to the southern hemisphere.‡

A few miles beyond Sir John Herschel's, and about ten or twelve miles from Cape Town, lies Constantia, so celebrated for its delicious liqueur wines. There are three farms on which the grape that yields this wine is cultivated—High Constantia, Great Constantia, and Little Constantia, the last appearing to me to excel both the others in the delicate flavour of its vintage, as much as it certainly does in its beautifully picturesque situation. It lies on the converging declivities of several small hills, which form part of the general slope from the range of Table Mountain towards False Bay. Through its centre, and around the basis of these hills, winds a beautiful, sparkling, limpid stream, and, on either side of this, the vines, carefully planted, and pruned into low shrubby bushes, rise, laden with their purple clusters, from the banks, while intersecting hedges of roses (in full bloom at the time of our visit), mixed with several gaudy exotic flowers, gave the whole a perfectly magic air, embosomed, as it was, in a deep forest of black oak, through which natural vistas allowed us, on one side, glimpses of rugged mountain peaks, appearing to pierce the heavy cloud which hung around their base; while, on the other, the eye rested, on the mighty sea, which lay in all its vastness and grandeur, sleeping beneath the blaze of the glorious noonday sun. It was very, very beautiful, and I felt all its beauties—but there mingled with my admiration many a fond thought of the friends whom I had left—and, as I gazed on the pathless, limitless sea that now rolled between us, I could not repress a sigh when the unwelcome suggestion presented itself to my mind—what, if you have parted from them once and for ever? Adieu.

#### OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP ON LITERATURE AND ART.

We have not been unobservant of the public anxiety to get a sight of the designs for the New Houses of Parliament to which the Commissioners awarded the first prize—nor unwilling to gratify that curiosity at any reasonable sacrifice—but the delay and uncertainty consequent on preparing the building estimates for government, have hitherto prevented us from hazarding a single word of promise on the subject. Now, however, our arrangements are so far completed, that we feel justified in announcing that the *Athenæum* of the 21st of May will contain a *General Description of the Building*, together with a *Plan of the Houses and attached Offices, &c.*, and a *Perspective View*, from drawings made under the direction of the Architect. We were naturally anxious, for many reasons, to have given the *Perspective View* in the Paper—but as that could only be done by engraving it on wood, and as it appeared utterly impossible that a wood engraving could do justice to the exquisite delicacy and beauty of the design, we have decided on giving a *steel-plate engraving* on a separate sheet. Subscribers will, of course, take care that they receive their copies with the Paper; but as many persons residing in the country, and not regular subscribers, may request friends to transmit copies, we think it well to state that the engraving *cannot pass by post*, and, therefore, that all such persons should immediately give their orders to a local bookseller, and in time to enable him to communicate with his London agent. We would indeed recommend them to order the Monthly Part of the *Athenæum*, inasmuch as the engraving will be carefully stitched therein, and thus secured against injury.

Mrs. Shelley, we are informed, is by express, desire about to edit the Posthumous Works of her father, the late William Godwin, containing an Autobiography, Correspondence, &c.

These are brave times for the writers of History. Every day seems to bring to light new treasures and collections—making public stores of materials whose copiousness and variety must tell upon the works of

See *Athenæum*, No. 364, and several subsequent Papers.

the Humes and Gibbons of the next generation. Molini of Florence is announcing a publication of high interest, 'Documenti di Storia Italiana,' a series of autograph letters, treaties, and conventions, extracted from the Paris collection of twelve thousand folio volumes of manuscript, referring to the political relations of France with other European states. The Marchese Gino Capponi has undertaken to furnish notes, illustrations, and explanatory notices to this work, which ought, if carefully edited, to prove most valuable. We have before us, also, a brochure reporting the progress of the *Société Royale des Antiquaires du Nord et Copenhagen*—another interesting manifesto of the activity of the times. Two ancient manuscripts which concern the literature of the North—*The Fornmannu Sögur*, vol. IX., and the *Oldnordiske Sagner*, vol. IX., have been published during the past twelvemonth. Others are announced as in course of preparation, and the corresponding members of this Society appear to be diligent in forwarding such information and furnishing such assistance as come within its scope.

It would be a waste of time and space, to expatiate upon the musical rumours now flying abroad by the thousand, or to offer any report of nine-tenths of the concerts manufactured nightly in this feverish metropolis. We must, however, make room for one name, that of Signora Luzini. This lady, who is at present in London, and about to give a concert, has been described as a singer of extraordinary merit. We may mention too, that one of the numerous Amateur Societies—that of the *Choral Harmonic Society*, has found itself in a sufficiently flourishing state to remove to the Hanover Square Rooms, where a concert was given by its members on Tuesday; with the assistance of M. Servais, Mr. Balfe, and Mad. Sala.

#### Close of the Present Exhibition.

##### BRITISH INSTITUTION, PAUL MALL.

The Gallery for the Exhibition and Sale of the Works of BRITISH ARTISTS is Open daily from 10 in the Morning till 5 in the Evening, and will be CLOSED on WEDNESDAY NEXT, May 4.

WILLIAM BARNARD, Keeper.

The Gallery will be RE-OPENED on MONDAY the 23rd of May, with a Collection of SPANISH, ITALIAN, and DUTCH PICTURES.

THE THIRTY-SECOND ANNUAL EXHIBITION of the SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER COLOURS at their Gallery, Pall Mall East, is NOW OPEN.—Open each day from Nine till Dusk.—Admission, 1s.; Catalogue, 6d.  
H. HILLS, Secretary.

##### DIORAMA, REGENT'S PARK.

Just OPEN, TWO PICTURES, painted by Le Chevalier Bostom. The Subjects are, the VILLAGE of ALAGNA, in Piedmont, and the INTERIOR of the CHURCH of SANTA CROCE, at Florence. The Village is first seen by moonlight, surrounded by its peaked mountains, with a lake in the foreground, formed by the melting of the snow; the lights from the distant houses are reflected upon its surface—the avalanches sweeping from their lofty summits, overwhelm the village. The coming day reveals the scene of desolation; and the simple spire alone remains as evidence of what hath been. The merits of the second Picture, the Interior of the Church of Santa Croce, at Florence, are so well known as to render detail unnecessary;—it exhibits all the effects of light and shade, from noon-day till midnight.—Open from 10 till 5.

#### SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY

##### ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.

April 25.—W. R. Hamilton, Esq. in the chair.

A paper was read, communicated by Mr. Renouard, detailing the principal circumstances in the life of Abu Bekr, a native of Timbuctoo, who accompanied Mr. Davidson from this country to Morocco, and is now attempting to proceed with him into the interior of Africa; showing also the circumstances which give a great appearance of authenticity to his narrative; and the accessions which his evidence may thus be said to make to our knowledge of the interior.

The narrative part of this paper has been already published in Dr. Madden's work on the West Indies, with less detail than is given by Mr. Renouard, but at greater length than we can here afford to it. The arguments by which Mr. Renouard supports its authenticity, turn chiefly on the undoubted knowledge possessed by this very remarkable person, of the languages of the interior, its productions, the course of its trade, and its habits and manners, all as known on other testimony. And the geographical details with which the paper concludes, consist of various itineraries, chiefly from Timbuctoo, or, more strictly speaking, Jenna, to the south and west, as far as the gold coast, and thence E.S.E. towards Haoussa. These latter plainly do not admit of ana-

lysis: nor have we space this week to enlarge on the other matter. It was announced, that further letters had been received from Mr. Davidson, dated from Mogadore, at which city he and his faithful companion arrived on the 18th March last, all well, on their way to Wady-Noon.

##### ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

April 16.—Sir George Staunton, Bart., in the chair.—Various donations were presented. Prof. Wilson read to the meeting an analysis of the 'Brähma Purāna,' prefaced by remarks on the Pauranic writings. From these remarks of the Professor, we learn that according to the definition of a Purāna, given by Sanscrit writers, the works so called treat of the creation and renovation of the universe; the divisions of time; the institutes of law and religion; the genealogies of the patriarchal families, and the dynasties of kings. They are eighteen in number; and there are, besides, several of a similar class, called *Upa*, or minor Purānas. The former are exceedingly voluminous, comprising about 400,000 *stokas*, or 16,000,000 lines,—a quantity which no European scholar could expect to peruse with care, even if his whole time were devoted to the task. Besides this obstacle to their examination, another presents itself, in their not being provided with tables of contents or indices, and in not conforming to any given arrangement; so that to know what any one of them contains, it is necessary to read the whole of it. This labour seems to have deterred Sanscrit students from effecting complete translations of even one or two of these works. But a full and correct view of the mythology and religion of the Hindús can only be expected when the Purānas have been carefully examined, and their character and chronology as far as possible ascertained. In order to effect the latter object, the learned Professor commenced, several years ago, a careful investigation of these writings. He employed several able Pundits to make a copious index of the contents of each Purāna, verifying its correctness by collation with the text; and when he thought it likely that any article of the index would afford useful information, he either translated it himself, or had it done by some young natives of Bengal, who wrote English intelligibly. In this manner he collected materials for a tolerably correct estimate of the value of each of the Purānas; and was able, without any very disproportionate labour, to effect an analysis of them, of which three or four specimens have been published, similar to the one he offered to the meeting that day. On concluding his introductory remarks, the Professor read his analysis of the before-mentioned Purāna, and disclosed much curious matter relative to the Hindú cosmogony and religion, ceremonial worship, &c. &c. Prof. Wilson considered that although the 'Brähma Purāna' is usually deemed by Hindú authorities as one of the earliest of the Pauranic writings, it has no pretensions to any great antiquity. The first few chapters seemed to belong to an ancient and genuine composition; but the greater part of the work was evidently of the class of Mahātmyas, or legendary and local descriptions of the greatness or holiness of particular temples, or individual divinities. Thanks were returned to the Professor for his interesting communication.

The Chairman announced that the Thirteenth Anniversary Meeting of the Society would take place on the 7th of May, at one o'clock.

##### ROYAL SOCIETY.

[Abstract of Papers read at the Meetings of the Society, continued from page 111.]

"Memoranda taken during the continuance of the Aurora Borealis of November 18, 1835. By Charles C. Christie, Esq. Communicated by Samuel Hunter Christie, Esq. F.R.S.

"The appearances described were seen from Deal, on the day mentioned in the title, from 9 to 20 minutes past 10 o'clock in the evening; and consisted chiefly of a bright arch of light, of which the lower edge was sharply defined, surmounted on a dark cloud below, while the upper edge was shaded off into the cloudless and starlight sky, emitting large but faint luminous streaks, which issued upwards with great rapidity, exactly imitating flames agitated to and fro by a violent wind."

"Démonstration complète du Théorème dit de Fermat: par François Paulet, de Genève, ancien élève de l'Ecole Polytechnique. Communicated by P. M. Roget, M.D., Sec. R.S.

"The theorem of which the author professes to give, in this paper, the complete demonstration, is the following: 'No power, beyond the second degree, of any quantity, can exist, capable of being resolved into the sum, or the difference, of two other powers of the same degree:' or, as it may still more generally be expressed, 'If the exponents of three powers be multiplied by the same number, provided that number be greater than 2, neither the sum, nor the difference, of any two of the resulting quantities can ever be equal to the third quantity.'"

"Researches towards establishing a theory of the Dispersion of Light, No. II. By the Rev. Eaden Powell, M.A., Savilian Professor of Geometry in the University of Oxford.

"The author, in a preceding paper, published in the last part of the Philosophical Transactions, commenced a comparison between the results of M. Cauchy's system of undulations, expressing the theoretical refractive index for each of the standard rays of the spectrum, and the corresponding index found from observation in different media. Since that paper was communicated, he has received the account of a new series of results obtained by M. Rudberg, and comprising the indices for the standard rays in a prism of calcareous spar, and in a prism of quartz, both for the ordinary and the extraordinary rays; and also the ratios of the velocities in the direction of the three axes of elasticity, respectively, in Aragonite and Topaz. The author was accordingly led to examine this valuable series of data, and the comparison of them with the theory forms the subject of the present paper. He finds the coincidences of theory and observation to be at least as close as those already obtained from Fraunhofer's results, and to afford a satisfactory extension of the theory to ten new cases, in addition to those already discussed; and a further confirmation of the law assigned by the hypothesis of undulations."

"Meteorological Journal kept at the Royal Observatory, Cape of Good Hope, from the 1st of June to the 31st of December, 1834. Communicated by Capt. Beaufort, R.N., Hydrographer to the Admiralty.

"The observations recorded in this Journal are those of the barometer, and of two thermometers, one in, and the other out of doors; taken at sunrise, noon, sunset, and midnight, in each successive day from the 1st of June, 1834, to the end of the year."

"Some Account of the Volcanic Eruption of Cosiguina in the Bay of Fonseca, commonly called the Coast of Conchagua, on the Western Coast of Central America. By Alexander Cabellegu, Esq.

"The particulars recorded in this narrative are derived partly from a voluminous collection of official reports transmitted from the authorities in various towns to the government of Central America, and partly from the information of intelligent eye-witnesses of the phenomena. The eruption occurred on the 19th of January, 1835, and was preceded by a slight noise, accompanied with a column of smoke issuing from the mountain, and increasing till it took the form of a large and dense cloud, which, when viewed from a distance of ten leagues to the southward, appeared like an immense plume of white feathers, rising with considerable velocity and expanding in every direction. Its colour was, at first, of the most brilliant white; but it gradually became tinged with grey; then passed into yellow; and finally assumed a beautifully crimson hue. In the course of the following days several shocks of an earthquake were felt, the last of which were most terrific. On the morning of the 22nd, the sun had risen in brightness; but a line of intense darkness denoted the presence of the same cloud which had before presented such remarkable appearances, and which, extending with great rapidity, soon obscured the light of day; so that in the course of half an hour the darkness equalled in intensity that of the most clouded night: persons touched without seeing one another; the cattle hurried back to their folds; and the fowls went to roost, as on the approach of night. This atmospheric darkness continued with scarcely any diminution for three days; during the whole of which time there fell a fine impalpable dust, cover-



ing the ground at St. Antonio to the depth of two inches and a half, and consisting of three layers of different shades of grey colour: and for ten or twelve succeeding days the sky exhibited a dim and murky light. At Nacacome, to the northward of the volcano, the same degree of darkness was experienced, and the deposit of ashes was from four to five inches in depth, and exhaled a fetid sulphureous odour, which penetrated through every interstice in the buildings. The complete obscurity was only occasionally broken by the lightning, which flashed in every direction, while the air was rent with loud and reiterated explosions like the discharges of artillery, which accompanied each eruption of volcanic matter, and conspired to strike the deepest terror, and to spread among the inhabitants a universal panic that the day of judgment was arrived. On the 24th the atmosphere became clearer, and the houses were found covered to the depth of eight inches with ashes, in which many small birds were found suffocated. Deer and other wild animals flew to the town for refuge, and the banks of the neighbouring streams were strewn with dead fish. In Segovia, and as far as eight leagues from the volcano, the showers of black sand were so abundant as to destroy thousands of cattle, and many were subsequently found whose bodies exhibited one mass of scorched flesh.

"Within the Bay of Fonseca, and two miles from the volcano, it is stated, that two islands, from two to three hundred yards in diameter, were thrown up, probably from the deposit of masses of scoria on previously existing shoals."

"On the Action of Light upon Plants, and of Plants upon the Atmosphere. By Charles Daubeny, M.D., Professor of Chemistry and Botany in the University of Oxford."

"The objects of the experimental inquiries of which the author gives an account in this paper, were, in the first place, to ascertain the extent of the influence of solar light in causing the leaves of plants to emit oxygen gas, and to decompose carbonic acid, when the plants were either immersed in water, or surrounded by atmospheric air. The plants subjected to the former mode of trial were *Brassica oleracea*, *Salicornia herbacea*, *Fucus digitatus*, *Tussilago hybrida*, *Cochlearia armorica*, *Mentha viridis*, *Rhenn raphaniscum*, *Allium ursinum*, and several species of *Grevillea*. Geraniums were the only plants subjected to experiment while surrounded with atmospheric air. Comparative trials were made of the action on these plants of various kinds of coloured light, transmitted through tinted glass, of which the relative calorific, illuminating, and chemical powers had been previously ascertained; and the results of all the experiments are recorded in tables; but no general conclusion is deduced from them by the author. He next describes a few experiments which he made on beans, with a view to ascertain the influence of light on the secretion of the green matter of the leaves, or rather to determine whether the change of colour in the chromule is to be ascribed to this agent. The third object of his inquiries was the source of the irritability of the *Mimosa pudica*, from which it appeared, that light of a certain intensity is necessary for the maintenance of the healthy functions of this plant, and that when subjected to the action of the less luminous rays, notwithstanding their chemical influence, the plant lost its irritability quite as soon as when light was altogether excluded. He then examines the action of light in causing exhalation of moisture from the leaves; selecting *Dahlia*, *Helianthus*, *Tree Malva*, &c., as the subjects of experiment. The general tendency of the results obtained in this series is to show that the exhalation is, *ceteris paribus*, most abundant in proportion to the intensity of the light received by the plant. He also made various comparative trials of the quantity of water absorbed, under different circumstances, by the roots of plants, and chiefly of the *Helianthus annuus*, *Sagittaria sagittifolia*, and the *Vine*. From the general tenor of the results of these and the preceding experiments, he is inclined to infer that both the exhalation and the absorption of moisture in plants, as far as they depend on the influence of light, are affected in the greatest degree by the most luminous rays; that all the functions of the vegetable economy which are owing to the presence of this agent, follow, in this respect, the same law; and that in the vegetable, as

well as in the animal kingdom, light acts in the character of a specific stimulus. The author found that the most intense artificial light that he could obtain from incandescent lime produced no sensible effect on plants.

"The latter part of the paper is occupied by details of the experiments which the author made with a view to ascertain the action of plants upon the atmosphere, and more especially to determine the proportion that exists between the effects attributable to their action during the night and during the day; and also the proportion between the carbonic acid absorbed, and the oxygen evolved.

"His experiments appear to show that at least 18 per cent. of oxygen may be added to the air confined in a jar by the influence of a plant contained within it. He also infers that the stage of vegetable life at which the function of purifying the air ceases, is that in which leaves cease to exist. The author shows that this function is performed both in dicotyledonous and in monocotyledonous plants, in evergreens as well as in those that are deciduous, in terrestrial and in aquatic plants, in the green parts of esculents as well as in ordinary leaves, in Algae and in Ferns as well as in Phanerogamous families. Professor Marcet has shown that it does not take place in Fungi."

"On the Anatomical and Optical Structure of the Crystalline Lenses of Animals, being the continuation of the paper published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1833. By Sir David Brewster."

"The author has examined the structure of the crystalline lens of the eye of a great variety of animals belonging to each of the four classes of Vertebrata; and has communicated in this paper a detailed account of his observations, arranged according as they relate to structures more and more complex. In a former paper, published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1833, the lens of the Cod fish was taken as the type of the simplest of these structures, inasmuch as all the fibres of which it is composed converge, like the meridians of a globe, to two opposite points, or poles, of a spheroid or lenticular solid; both of which poles are situated in the axis of vision. The structure which ranks next in respect of simplicity is that exhibited in the Salmon, among fishes; in the Gecko, among reptiles; and in the Hare, among mammalia. It presents at each pole two septa placed in one continuous line, in different points of which all the fibres proceeding from the one surface to the other have their origin and termination. A structure somewhat more complex is met with in the lenses of most of the mammalia, and is particularly exemplified in the lion, the tiger, the horse, and the ox. Three septa occur at each pole, in the form of diverging lines inclined to one another at angles of 120°. The next degree of complexity is presented in the lens of the whale, the seal, and the bear, which contain, instead of three, four septa on each side, placed at right angles to each other in the form of a cross. In some specimens of lenses of whales and seals, the author observed two septa from each pole, forming one continuous line, from each of the extremities of which proceeded two others, which were at right angles relatively to one another; so that there were in all five on each surface. The most complex structure is that of the lens of the elephant, which exhibits three primary septa, diverging at equal angles from the pole, and at their extremities bifurcating into two additional septa, which are inclined to each other at angles of 60°, these latter being the real septa, to which the fibrous radiations are principally related. In some lenses of the elephant the author found the three septa immediately proceeding from the poles exceedingly short, and approaching to evanescence; so that he has no doubt that occasionally they may be found to have disappeared; and that the other six septa will then all diverge from the poles, like the radii of a hexagon, at angles of 60°.

"In all the preceding cases, where the arrangement of the fibres is symmetrical on the two sides, the septa on the opposite surface of the lens occupy positions which are reversed with respect to one another; thus in the simple case of the double septa at each pole, the line formed by those of the posterior surface is situated at right angles to that formed by the septa of the anterior surface. Where there are three divergent septa at each pole, the direction of those on the one side, bisect the angles formed by those on

the other side; and again, where the septa form a rectangular cross, those of one surface are inclined 45° to those of the other surface.

"It follows as a consequence of this configuration of the series of points which constitute the origins and terminations of the fibres, that all the fibres, with the exception only of those proceeding in a direct line from the extremities of any of the septa, must, in their passage from the one surface to the other, follow a course more or less contorted; and must form lines of double curvature; that is, curves of which none of the portions lie in the same plane.

"The fibres of the lenses of quadrupeds gradually diminish in size from the equator or margin of the lens, where they are largest, to their terminations in the anterior or posterior septa. They are united together by small teeth like those of fishes; but, generally speaking, the teeth are smaller and less distinctly pronounced, and sometimes they are not seen without great difficulty.

"In the lens of the turtle, as well as in that of several fishes, the arrangement of the fibres, instead of being symmetrical on the two sides, as is the case in all the preceding instances, is different on the anterior and posterior surfaces; there being two septa on the former, but none in the latter, which present only a single polar point of convergence.

"The author has directed much of his attention to the optical properties of these structures. The lens of the salmon depolarizes three series of luminous sectors; the inner and outer series being negative, and the intermediate series positive. The polarizing structure of the cornea is negative, and it depolarizes very high tints at its junction with the sclerotic coat. When a slice cut from the sclerotic nearly perpendicularly to the surfaces, and with parallel faces, is exposed to polarized light, it exhibits the system of biaxial rectilinear fringes, exactly like those in a plate of glass heated by boiling water or oil, when in the act of rapid cooling. The same alternation of properties with regard to polarization in the successive strata of the substance of the crystalline lenses is exhibited by other fishes which the author examined.

"With respect to the final cause of these highly complicated arrangements, it is reasonable to conceive that the gradually increasing density of the fibres in each successive stratum from the surface to the centre is intended to correct spherical aberration: but the design of the other properties resulting from the arrangement of the fibres with reference to septa, in all their variations of number and position, and more especially the alternations of positive and negative structures, as exhibited by the action of the different strata in polarized light, has not even excited the ingenuity of conjecture, and will probably remain among the numerous problems destined to exercise the sagacity of another age."

"Discussion of Tide Observations made at Liverpool. By J. W. Lubbock, Esq."

"The chief purpose which the author has in view in presenting the tables accompanying this paper, which are a continuation of those published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1835, and are founded on the observations instituted by Mr. Hutchinson at Liverpool, is to exhibit the diurnal inequality in the height of high water, which is scarcely sensible in the river Thames, but which at Liverpool amounts to more than a foot. The diurnal inequality in the interval appears to be insensible.

"The author has further ascertained that Bernoulli's formulæ expressing the height of the tide, deduced from his theory of the tides, presents a very remarkable accordance with observation."

"Geometrical Investigations concerning the Phenomena of Terrestrial Magnetism: Second Series.—On the number of points at which a magnetic needle can take a position vertical to the Earth's surface. By Thomas Stephens Davies, Esq."

"This paper is intended as a continuation of the one by the same author published in the last volume of the Philosophical Transactions; in which it was proposed to investigate the mathematical consequences of the hypothesis of the earth being a magnet with two poles, or centres of force, situated anywhere either within, or at the surface, and of equal intensity, but of contrary characters: with the ultimate view of verifying this hypothesis by comparing its results, so deduced, with the phenomena furnished by observation.

"In his former paper the author has shown that on this hypothesis the magnetic equator, or the locus of the points at which the magnetic needle takes a horizontal position, is one single and continuous line on the surface of the earth. In this paper his object is to prove that there are always two, and never more than two, points at the earth's surface, at which the needle takes a position vertical to the horizon.

"At the close of his former paper the author had deduced the equation of the curve of verticity, that is, of the curve at any point of which an infinitesimal needle being placed, it will always tend towards the centre of the earth, and consequently be vertical to the horizon at its point of intersection with the surface of the earth: but, owing to circumstances over which he had no controul, he was unable, at that time, to write out an account of his investigations of the peculiar character of that curve, or to apply its properties to the determination of the latter problem: and these are more especially the objects to which the present paper is devoted.

"The process to which he has had recourse, with this view, are the following. He first transposes the rectangular equation of the curve into a polar equation, and finds that in the result the radius vector is involved only in the second degree; and hence that for every value of the polar angle there are two values of the radius vector, and never more than two; or, in other words, that no line drawn from the centre of the earth can cut the curve of verticity in more than two points. But as no means present themselves of ascertaining whether the values of ( $r$ ), the polar ordinates of the curve of contact, be always real or not, or how many values of ( $\theta$ ), the other co-ordinate to that curve, are possible for any given value of  $r$ ; he abandons this method of inquiry, contenting himself with a few deductions respecting the general form of the locus, and proceeds to employ a different method.

"The general system of his reasonings proceeds on the principle, that as the magnetic curve itself, and the curve of verticity, have one common and dependent genesis, a knowledge of the properties of the former must throw considerable light on those of the latter; and he is accordingly induced to enter into a more minute examination of the magnetic curve than had before been attempted. As both the polar and the rectangular equations of this curve are much too complex to afford any hope of success in their investigation, the author has recourse to a system of co-ordinates, which he terms the 'angular system,' and which was suggested to him originally by the form under which Professor Playfair exhibited this equation in Robison's Mechanical Philosophy. But as he has not yet published his investigations of the differential co-efficients, and other formulae necessary in the application of this system, he puts his results in a form adapted to rectangular co-ordinates; each rectangular co-ordinate being expressed in terms of his angular co-ordinates and the constants of the given equation; and by these means deduces the characters of the magnetic curve throughout its whole course.

"The angular equation being

$$\cos \theta + \theta = 2 \cos \beta,$$

he finds, 1°, that the two equations, the convergent and the divergent, or that in which the poles are unlike, and that in which they are like, are both expressed by this equation, and essentially included in it: 2°, that the divergent branches on one side of the magnetic axis are algebraically and geometrically continuous with the convergent branches on the other side; the parameter ( $\beta$ ) being the same in both cases: 3°, that the divergent branches are asymptotic, and the asymptote is capable of a very simple construction: 4°, that the continuous branches have the poles as points of inflexion, and that these are the only points of inflexion within finite limits: 5°, that a tangent at any point of the curve, or, which is the same thing, the direction taken by a small needle placed there, admits of easy construction: 6°, that when the parameter ( $\beta$ ) is such as to cause the convergent and divergent branches to intersect, they do so in a perpendicular to the magnetic axis drawn from the poles: 7°, that the convergent branches are always concave, and the divergent always convex, to a line at right angles to the magnet, drawn from its middle,—besides other proper-

ties not less interesting, though less capable of succinct enunciation.

"Having separated the branches belonging to the case of like poles from those belonging to the unlike ones in the magnetic curve, the author proceeds to a similar separation of the corresponding branches in the curve of verticity. In the former case the curve is composed of four branches infinite in length, having the magnetic axis for asymptotes, lying above that axis, and emanating from the poles to the right and left; and of two finite branches, continuous with those just described, and lying below the magnetic axis; one of which passes through the centre of the earth, and meets the other in the perpendicular from the middle of the axis; so that the whole system is constituted by one continuous curve, extending from negative infinite to positive infinite, and having the lines drawn from the centre of the earth to the magnetic poles as tangents at the poles; and no part of the curve lies between these tangents. It bears in form some general resemblance to a distorted conchoid; this curve not having either cusp or loop. In the second case, the curve is also composed of four branches, two finite and two infinite ones; the latter having the line drawn from the centre of the earth through the middle of the magnet as asymptotes, and both lying on the same side of it as the more distant pole; and the finite branches joining these continuously at the poles, and each other in the middle of the magnetic axis; the one from the nearer pole lying above the axis, and the one from the remoter pole lying below it. The branches, where they unite at the poles, have the lines drawn from the centre of the earth to the poles as tangents, and the lower infinite branch passes through the centre. The whole system of branches is comprised between the polar tangents; and the two systems are mutually tangential at the poles, and intersect each other at the centre; but they have no other point in common.

"Lastly, the author proceeds to demonstrate that a circle (namely, the magnetic meridian), described from the centre of the curve of verticity, will always cut the convergent system in two points, but can never cut it in more than two. He remarks, however, that if we could conceive two poles of like kinds to exist without any other whatsoever, we might have either four points of verticity, or only two, according to circumstances; but he waives the discussion of this particular case, as being irrelevant to the purpose of his present inquiry.

"Mr. Davies announces his intention of shortly laying before the Society a continuation of these researches; devoting the next series to the points of maximum intensity."

"*Memoir on the Metamorphoses in the Macroura, or Long-tailed Crustacea, exemplified in the Prawn (Palæmon serratus).* By John V. Thompson, Esq. Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals. Communicated by Sir James Macgrigor, M.D. Sec.

"The author gives descriptions, illustrated by outline figures, of three different stages of growth of the Prawn; the first being that of the larva immediately on its exclusion from the egg; the second, at a later period, when it has acquired an additional pair of cleft members, and a pair of scales on each side of the tail; and the third, at a still more advanced stage of development, when it presents the general appearance of the adult Prawn, but still retains the natatory division of the members, now increased to six pair. The author thinks it probable that an intermediate stage of metamorphosis exists between the two last of these observed conditions of the animal."

"*On Voltaic Combinations, in a Letter to Michael Faraday, Esq.* By G. F. Daniell, Esq. Professor of Botany in King's College, London.

"The author, after expressing his obligations to Mr. Faraday for the important light which his late researches in electricity have thrown on chemical science, proceeds to state that in pursuing the train of inquiry which has thus been opened, he has obtained further confirmations of the truth of that great principle discovered and established by Mr. Faraday, namely, the definite chemical action of electricity; and has thence been led to the construction of a voltaic arrangement which furnishes a constant current of electricity for any required length of time.

"For the purpose of ascertaining the influence exerted by the different parts of the voltaic battery in their various forms of combination, he contrived an apparatus, which he designates by the name of the *dissected battery*, and which consists of ten cylindrical glass cells, capable of holding the fluid electrolytes, in which two plates of metal are immersed; each plate communicating below, by means of a separate wire, which is made to perforate a glass stopper closing the bottom of the cell, with a small quantity of mercury, contained in a separate cup underneath the stopper, and with which electric communications may be made at pleasure through other wires passing out of the vessel on each side. The active elements of the circuit, which were adopted as standards of comparison, were, for the metals, plates of platinum and amalgamated zinc three inches in length by one in breadth; and for the electrolyte, water acidulated with sulphuric acid, in the proportion of 100 parts by volume of the former to 2.25 of the latter; this degree of dilution (giving a specific gravity of 1.0275,) being adopted, in order to connect the author's experiments with those of Mr. Faraday.

"This dilute acid exerts scarcely any local action on amalgamated zinc; because the surface of the metal becomes covered with bubbles of hydrogen gas, which adhere strongly to it; and this force of heterogeneous adhesion appears to have an important influence on the phenomena both of local and of current affinity, and soon puts a stop to the decomposition of the water by the zinc. When a small quantity of nitric acid is added to the acidulated water, the same plate which in the former experiment resisted the action of the diluted sulphuric acid, is in a few hours entirely dissolved, without the extrication of any gaseous matter. This result is explained by the author on the supposition that the elements of the nitric acid enter into combination with the hydrogen as it is evolved, and that the opposing attraction of this latter substance is thus removed. The author finds, in like manner, that nascent hydrogen deoxidates copper, and precipitates it from its solutions upon the negative plate of the voltaic circuit.

"A series of experiments performed with the dissected battery is next described; illustrating, in a striking manner, the difference of effects with relation to the quantity and the intensity of the electric current, consequent on the different modes of connecting the elements of the battery: the former property being chiefly exhibited when the plates of the respective metals are united together so as to constitute a single pair; and the latter being exalted when the separate pairs are combined in alternate series. The influence of different modifications of these arrangements, and the effects of the interposition of pairs in the reverse order, operating as causes of retardation, are next inquired into.

"In the course of these researches, the author, being struck with the great extent of negative metallic surface over which the deoxidating influence of the positive metal appeared to manifest itself, as is shown more especially in the cases where a large sheet of copper is protected from corrosion by a piece of zinc or iron of comparatively very small dimensions, was induced to institute a more careful examination of the circumstances attending this class of phenomena; and was thus led to discover the cause of the variations and progressive decline of the power of the ordinary voltaic battery, one of the principal of which is the departure of the zinc on the platina plates; and to establish certain principles from which a method of counteracting this evil may be derived. The particular construction which he has devised for the attainment of this object, and which he denominates the *constant battery*, consists of a hollow copper cylinder, containing within it a membranous tube formed by the gullet of an ox, in the axis of which is placed a cylindrical rod of zinc. The dilute acid is poured into the membranous tube from above by means of a funnel, and passes off, as occasion requires, by a siphon tube at the lower part; while the space between the tube and the sides of the copper cylinder is filled with a solution of sulphate of copper, which is preserved in a state of saturation by a quantity of this substance suspended in it by a cullender, allowing it to percolate in proportion as it is dissolved. Two principal objects are accomplished by this ar-



arrangement; first, the removal out of the circuit of the oxide of zinc, the deposit of which is so injurious to the continuance of the effect of the common battery; and, secondly, the absorption of the hydrogen evolved upon the surface of the copper, without the precipitation of any substance which would lead to counteract the voltaic action of that surface. The first is completely effected by the suspension of the zinc rod in the interior membranous cell into which fresh acidulated water is allowed slowly to drop, in proportion as the heavier solution of the oxide of zinc is withdrawn from the bottom of the cell by the siphon tube. The second object is attained by charging the exterior space surrounding the membrane with a saturated solution of sulphate of copper, instead of diluted acid; for, on completing the circuit, the electric current passes freely through this solution, and no hydrogen makes its appearance upon the conducting plate; but a beautiful pink coating of pure copper is precipitated upon it, and thus perpetually renews its surface.

"When the whole battery is properly arranged and charged in this manner, it produces a perfectly equal and steady current of electricity for many hours together. It possesses also the further advantages of enabling us to get rid of all local action by the facility it affords of applying amalgamated zinc; of allowing the replacement of the zinc rods at a very trifling expense; of securing the total absence of any wear of the copper; of requiring no employment of nitric acid, but substituting in its stead materials of greater cheapness, namely, sulphate of copper, and oil of vitriol; the total absence of any annoying fumes; and lastly, the facility and perfection with which all metallic communications may be made and their arrangements varied."

#### HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY.

April 19.—A paper was read, from T. A. Knight, Esq., descriptive of a very minute species of moth, the *Tinea Clerckella* of Linnaeus, and an insect, *Egilla Pyria*, having much the resemblance of an Aphid, from whose depredations the pear-tree frequently sustains much injury.

Some very beautiful varieties of *Rhododendron*, *Brugmansia*, *Oncidium*, and *Epidendrum*, were exhibited; as were, also, flowers of the *Acanthophippium bicolor*, the remarkable *Epiphyte* from Ceylon, and specimens, in high perfection, of the *Berberis aquifolium*.

Notice was given that the Anniversary Meeting of the Society would take place on Monday, the 2nd of May, and that the Ordinary Meetings, in Regent Street, would be held in future at the hour of three, instead of one o'clock, as formerly, except during the winter months, when the chair would be taken at two.

The Meeting was very numerously attended.

#### INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.

The two first meetings of the session were principally occupied with the election of officers, and receiving the Report of the Council.

Jan. 26.—Bryan Donkin, Esq., one of the Vice Presidents, in the chair.—A paper, by Mr. C. Bourns, was presented and read. It contained an historical account of legislative measures for the jurisdiction of the Port of London, and the regulation of its commerce, from the earliest period to the present time; and suggested other enactments for the better regulation of steam-vessels in the pool.—A discussion took place on the necessity of larger boats being employed by the watermen on the river; and, it was stated by several members, that wherries and other small boats had been built of less instead of greater weight since the introduction of steam navigation—that it was not likely that any alteration of the paddle-wheel would much reduce the swell, which is produced by the speed; and, whether the vessel be propelled by wind or any other force, if it move with the same velocity, the effect on the water would be the same.—Some conversation afterwards took place on the effects produced by new London Bridge; it was stated, that the current of the river was much increased, particularly in the centre of the stream—that a great alteration has taken place in the tide, which runs out much lower—and that there is a greater deposition of mud on the shores. It was agreed, that correct observations of the height of tides, above and

below bridge, would be desirable, and some members promised to present tables of them, constructed with considerable attention. A member remarked, that all the consequences prognosticated by the late President, in his Report on the subject of London Bridge, had been realized by the event.

Feb. 2.—The President, James Walker, Esq., in the chair.—A paper was read on locomotive engines in tunnels, by Mr. George Smith. The writer is resident engineer to the Leeds and Selby railroad; he described the effect of a train passing through a tunnel half-a-mile long, at the commencement of this road, near the town of Leeds; and stated, that the ground rises gradually, as you leave the town, and the ascent continues through the tunnel; therefore, in starting, the engine labours hard to overcome the inclination of the road, and the fire being made with a mixture of coal to cause the coke to ignite more easily, considerable smoke is evolved, which, mixing with the steam blowing into the chimney, produces a cloud in the upper part of the arch, close to the roof: this continues for about five minutes, or a shorter time, according to the direction and force of the wind, and the barometrical state of the atmosphere; it soon parts with the steam by condensation, and the smoke makes its escape up the shafts, or from the ends of the tunnel. It is not any annoyance to the passengers, as its superior levity keeps it high above their heads; even if it were low enough to be perceived by them, it would not be injurious, as the copious supply of steam mixed with it, deprives it entirely of its noxious qualities. In advancing towards Leeds, the inclination is favourable; and the engine, having had time to get up its speed, passes through with greater velocity. Precautions are taken to prevent any smoke rising, by getting the fire clear as it approaches the entrance: when it enters, the furnace door is opened, and the steam is kept down by pumping water into the boiler, while it passes through; the draught is also checked, by allowing the steam to escape directly into the air, and not up the chimney, therefore very little steam, and scarcely any smoke, is perceptible. The greatest inconvenience in tunnels arises from the noise and the diminution of light; the latter has been attempted to be remedied by means of reflectors placed to receive the light from the shafts, and disperse it more generally; lamps also have been used successfully: these methods seem to promise well when time shall have matured them.

Some specimens of wood from Bridlington Piers were exhibited, and Mr. Smeaton's report upon them in 1778, was read: he states, that the timber employed in their construction, is not only injured from exposure to the constant action of the sea, but by the continual eating of a species of worms (the *Teredo navalis*), which differs from the kind (*Limnoria terebrans*) which destroys ships, and is said to have been originally brought from the West Indies. The worm is described as exceedingly small, requiring a glass of considerable magnifying power to see it distinctly; it seems to make its way by exuding an acrid juice, which enables it to enter the timber, and work its way through it, which it does, not like the *Limnoria terebrans*, in the direction of the grain of the wood, but in all directions, and generally obliquely to the grain. The lines of march are as close as possible to each other, separated only by the slightest film: this is left as the insects proceed onwards, and is soon removed by the washing of the waves, which continually reduces the wood-work, till it becomes too weak to support the weight of earth, and it is obliged to be replaced by new. The progressive destruction is at the rate of about eight years for a three-inch oak plank, entered from one side only: fir timber is destroyed much more rapidly. These creatures never attack from the land side, unless the water runs in and out between the earth and the wood; their scene of action is confined to the space between high and low water-mark, or from the beach to where the tide rises: they seem to require constant lubrication by the salt water. To protect the wood-work, Mr. Smeaton recommended the piles to be sheathed, similar to the sheathing of a ship, by covering them with thin boards, put on lengthways, filled full of nails with broad flat heads, called scupper nails, which would, he observed, form a coat of rust on the surface, and prevent the worms entering; he recommended the

detached piles, which are placed as fenders, to be filled with nails all around; but states, if sufficient funds are to be had, the erection of a stone pier would be the cheapest ultimately, and the only effectual remedy.

The subject of Cornish Engines being introduced, a gentleman from Cornwall, whose father was one of the earliest and greatest improvers of those engines, said, he was of opinion, that the construction of the boiler had no effect on the work done by them; he thought, using the steam expansively, by admitting a small portion into the cylinder, then shutting it off, and allowing the expansion of that steam to finish the depression of the piston to the bottom of the cylinder, and afterwards condensing it, was the cause of their doing more duty with the same quantity of coals, than the engines constructed on Bolton and Watt's principle. He also stated, that the pumps were worked by solid plungers of gun-metal, and described the construction of the valves, which admit of a large opening for the passage of the water, to prevent the friction caused by passing large quantities through small apertures; he spoke of one engine raising 66 millions of pounds a foot high, (called the duty of an engine,) with the consumption of a bushel of coals, and others that do a duty of 80 and 90 millions; the greatest duty of Bolton and Watts' engines, was stated to be 30 millions. It was remarked, that the economy of the Cornish pumping was exciting great attention at all the large water-works in this metropolis, and some parties who are interested in them, spoke of an experiment at the Fowey Consols Mine, in which an engine, called the Austin engine, did a duty of 125 millions. It was stated that no expense was spared in the construction of the mining engines, and the greatest attention is paid in keeping them in good order; every part is kept as hot as possible, by surrounding the cylinders, pipes, &c. with cases filled with saw-dust, or covering them with cloth or other materials, to prevent the escape of heat from the exposure of any part of their surface to the atmosphere. It was stated, that more than 200 tons of gun-metal is employed in the plungers and other parts of the machinery, at the Consolidated Mines. The engines work very slowly; they are not calculated to work more than 12 strokes per minute, and seldom make more than from 4 to 6. It seemed to be the opinion, that the economy of fuel might partly arise from employing engines of very great power, and working them at a fifth or sixth part of what they are constructed to do: thus, an engine of 300 horse power, does no more work than one of 50 or 60 horse power. Some members thought more loss was sustained from the increased outlay in such amazing engines, than the saving of fuel would justify. Some doubt was thrown upon the experiments, as not being carried on for a sufficient length of time; and the accuracy was questioned, of the weight of coal employed, and the quantity of water raised.

Feb. 9.—The President, in the chair.—A conversation took place on the weight and properties of different kinds of coal; some members stated, that 94lb. was considered a bushel in Cornwall, but the average weight of Newcastle coal appeared to be, from various hints, 80lb. to the bushel; that of Welch coal, a little more, according to the quality and size; in all cases, small coal is found to weigh less by measurement than a mixture of large and small.

A specimen of stone, formed by the cementation of sand and gravel, with the oxide of iron from scupper nails at Yarmouth; and two pieces of oak piles, which show the destruction caused by worms there, being exhibited, it was observed, that a similar effect, caused by the scupper nails, was frequently produced by the oxidation of the gas-pipes in London, but the substance formed was not so hard.

It was stated, that the specimens of wood were portions of piles six inches thick, which were put down 20 years since: the ravages committed on them were by a species of worm very different to that which exists at Bridlington, on the same coast, 100 miles further north, of which specimens were shown last Tuesday. This is a small worm (*Limnoria terebrans*), which, it appears, does not increase in size after it has entered the wood. The worm of Yar-

mouth (*Teredo navalis*) enters the timber very small, and gradually enlarges as it advances, till it becomes half an inch in diameter, and two or three inches long. These insects carry on their operations between the low-water mark and the sand. They never penetrate deeper than the gravel or sand of the beach, but, for the whole length of the piling, 200 feet, they have produced a complete destruction of the timber, about four feet wide. A member remarked, that, in a conversation he had with an eminent naturalist, on the subject of the *Limnoria terebrans*, he was not aware that it was known at so early a period as Smeaton's time.

Feb. 16.—The President in the chair.—Mr. Wickstead's paper, on the Cornish Engines, being read, it was remarked, that the saving of fuel in the Cornish Engines, compared with the Soho, appeared to be in the proportion of 3 to 1; so that 1,000 tons of coal, in Cornwall, are made to do the same work as 3,000 tons in London. The general observations were very similar to those made on the 2nd instant. Some members remarked, that the Cornish mode of working was well adapted to the mines; where the lifts were so high, the water acquired a momentum in its passage, which materially assisted its ascent; and, perhaps, a reserve of power is necessary, in order to be provided against any unusual increase of water, which might be caused by continual rain, or other casualties; but, where the lifts do not exceed 20 feet, as in drainage, it does not appear to answer; and the alternate intervals of rest are not objectionable, between the discharges of water from the mine, but would be highly so in some cases.

Feb. 23.—The President in the chair.—A paper on the causes of the difference of duty done by the Cornish and Soho Engines, from Mr. Perkins, being read, which attributed the great advantage of the former, to making use of a small quantity of steam generated under very great pressure in the boiler, and allowing it to expand into a large space in the cylinder. It was observed, that, no doubt, advantage was obtained by expanding the steam, but many members thought the advantage was overrated. Some said there was a difficulty in introducing high-pressure steam, as most of the influential persons in this part of the country thought it dangerous. The observations were repeated, that the Cornish engines could not be applied with equal advantage to any other work, than what they were used for in Cornwall; they could not be adapted to keep up a regular rotary motion, to which the Bolton and Watt's engines are so extensively applied, in driving various kinds of machinery.

#### MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

SAT.	Westminster Medical Society	Eight, P.M.
	Horticultural Society (Anniversary)	One.
	Royal Institution (Anniversary)	Eight.
MON.	Entomological Society	Eight.
	Institute of British Architects (Annual Meeting)	Three.
	Linnean Society	Eight.
TUES.	Horticultural Society	Three.
	Civil Engineers	Eight.
WED.	Society of Arts	Seven.
	Royal Society	Eight.
THUR.	Antiquarian Society	Eight.
	Zoological Society	Three.
FRID.	Royal Institution	Eight.

#### FINE ARTS

##### SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER COLOURS.

This Exhibition, in which so much of sterling and unobtrusive excellence is usually combined with somewhat too much of manner (we use the word without the *ism*, trusting that it will thus lose a part of its reproachful significance), opened for the thirty-fourth time, on Monday last. The number of pictures sold at the early period of our visit, is a good presumptive proof of general merit; we shall not, therefore, we trust, be considered either exacting or capricious, if, after this general acknowledgment, we confess that there is something too much of routine in these yearly exhibitions—the artists repose too much upon the safe, but over-cautious, principle of “letting well alone,”—and we looked round in vain for new names, and fresh imaginations. The picture which first claims attention in this exhibition, is

No. 125, Mr. Cattermole's illustration of that thrilling scene in ‘Quentin Durward,’ where the Prince Bishop of Liege is sacrificed to the brutal fury of the Boar of Ardenne, in the castle of Schönwald. We have always found in this artist's clever drawings something closely akin to the chivalresque spirit of Scott's romantic scenes: the present, if it do not wholly fulfil the conditions of the text (and from what artist may we hope for perfect satisfaction?) comes nearer to the author than anything from Mr. Cattermole's pencil which we have hitherto seen. He has thoroughly caught the fiendish spirit of the midnight carouse, and shown, in admirable contrast, the hideous Boar of Ardenne (afterwards to be written of by the Lady Hameline, as “her William”), and the benevolent high-hearted Prince Bishop: the brutal rout of the monster's satellites is also sketched with admirable spirit, and the background reeks with a lurid light which puts out the full moonshine. Some of the foremost heads and figures, however, struck us as extravagant, and we looked long before we could separate Quentin Durward from the rest of the figures: this is a mistake; though not a principal actor in the scene, he should hardly have been “to seek.” The same artist has another of his clever studies of armour, in No. 254, *New Hall, Warwickshire*.

We have lately had frequent occasion to commend the Spanish scenes of Mr. J. F. Lewis; here are a suite of three representations of one of the most national, and the most barbarous amusements still extant in Europe—a bull-fight. They are hardly numbered according to order: No. 302 presenting to our view the preparations for the combat in the suburbs of the old city of Granada. No. 112 is, perhaps, the least spirited. No. 143 an admirable drawing, is *The Death of the Bull*, with Chulos and Gitanas carousing in the foreground, and the successful Matadors lounging at their ease, drinking in compliments paid to their grace and dexterity; three mules, gaily caparisoned, have been just led in to convey away the carcass of the slaughtered animal. These scenes are so full of life and character, that it is impossible to dwell upon them without, in some measure, sharing the excitement they commemorate. To raise a merely mechanical question, we hope that the quantity of body-colour employed in their painting will not prove unfavourable to their permanence.

As the inhabitants of the “Emerald Isle” claim the honour of Spanish parentage, we may come from Mr. Lewis's Peninsular scenes to Mr. Evans's Irish ones. They are clever—though their texture, besides being somewhat slight, has more of the nature of enamel than suits materials so homely. No. 84, *The Claddagh*, and 152, *Butter-milk Lane, Galway*, are, perhaps, the best of the drawings; the dress of the peasantry in the latter tells most picturesquely. In the remoter parts, and older towns, of South Wales, too, where costume is still rigorously observed, an artist might find studies as unlike the *tailors' nature* of England at the present day, as congregate in any little old town of Normandy or Belgium.

We ought, perhaps, if we gave precedence in our notice to the drawings, the subjects of which are ambitiously chosen, to have mentioned a few essays in historical painting which are worthy of remark. No. 175 is one of them. Mr. J. Nash is here happier (the subject being the visit of Charles the Fifth of Germany to Francis the First, after the battle of Pavia,) than we have yet seen him; perhaps because the only female figure in the scene has an averted face. But this drawing has other merits beyond those merely negative; the principal figures are well conceived—the pose of the German Emperor is particularly unforced and dignified, and the colouring is clear and brilliant, without verging towards tawdriness. We like much less the same artist's scene from ‘Quentin Durward’ (27), where the disguised heiress of Croye waits at the hostelry upon the sarcastic and provident Maitre Pierre, and the young archer of the Scottish guard. But, as is the case of Shakespeare,—some of whose inimitable scenes (as, for instance, 17 and 41) are hit off in but a feeble and lady-like manner by Mr. J. Stephano—it is difficult to point up to Scott. Mr. Stone has tried, in No. 156, to represent Amy Robsart and Tony Fire-the-Faggot, and the modern Iago, Master Richard Varney, in the scene where the latter offers his dagger to cut

the floss silk which secured his master's letter; the men are passable, and their characters, on the whole, have been well caught; but Amy,—though innocent, girlish, graceful by nature and not by schooling,—was anything but green, yet Mr. Stone has made her so. To return, for a moment, to Shakespeare, Mr. Richter has seen fit to libel the two Dromios in No. 191. If we read the Comedy of Errors aright, those pleasant knaves were something more than a pair of Bartholomew-fair clowns; here they appear to have stepped out of a pantomime, bringing their riotous conceited attitudes with them, and having washed only a little of the brick red from their faces. Before we proceed to mention the landscapes, we must speak of Mrs. Seyfiarth's *Ruth and Naomi* (178), which is very clever—though she, who

stood in tears amid the alien corn,

has too much of the Fleming in her sumptuous figure and long golden hair. We must mention Mr. Hunt—the Miss Mitford of water-colourists—who exhibits his usual number of farmer's boys and country children, all clever, but one or two of them somewhat spotty in their handling; as, for instance 203, on which the colour is sprinkled, not spread. We must ask of Mr. Cotman whether his fame is high enough to permit him to send to an exhibition crude sketches in the place of finished pictures; and of Mr. Cristall, whether the Scotch Peasant Girls he saw at Lass were quite so classical in their *tournaure* as he has been pleased to represent them in No. 105. Mr. Taylor's peasant-life is much more to our tastes, though he is too fond of a pink and yellow tone of colouring: his *Weary Travellers* (255) is an easy and very beautiful group; and he has peopled some of Mr. Barrett's sunshiny pictures with groups and figures thoroughly appropriate in style and sentiment. We take our leave of humanity by a polite word to Mr. Wright's *Lady with a Letter* (286).

Though the strength of this Exhibition lies in its landscapes, we shall not dwell long upon this division of the Catalogue. Prout exhibits but sparingly this year; Harding, too, is chary, and has not sent anything particularly noticeable; but Copley Fielding is some fifty strong, as usual. It is difficult to conceive that transparent colours alone can produce such an effect as we find in the sky of No. 69, *Vessels at the Entrance of Dover Harbour*, where the gloom is positively tremendous. We know of no other artist who could make a picture of a few grassy swells and a passing cloud, yet Mr. Fielding has done it perfectly in No. 130—it would be fruitless to write down one half the numbers opposite which the pencil made its mark. Cox, Dewint, Barrett, and Gastineau, have also contributed according to their usual liberal measure; and, if they have not acquired “fresh fields and pastures new,” at least continue to “hold their own.” Mr. Hills, too, must not be forgotten, though the too elaborate finish bestowed by him upon his glade scenes, as well as the cattle which they serve to set off, pulls upon the eye. Another year we shall be glad to mention names of promise, as well as names of performance.

#### MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

##### DRURY LANE.

This Evening, THE NATIONAL GUARD; CHARLES XII.; and THE MAID OF CASHMERE.  
On Monday, LA SONAMBULA, in which Madame Malibran will make her First Appearance.

##### ENGLISH OPERA HOUSE.

This Evening, LUCILLE; CAPTAIN IS NOT A-MISS; A DAY WELL SPENT; and COLONIAL MINERS.  
On Monday, A new Musical Drama, entitled THE WITCH'S SON.

THE COMMEMORATION OF SIR THOMAS GRESHAM will be held, by permission of the Right Hon. the LORD MAYOR, at the MANSION HOUSE, on SATURDAY, May 14, at 10 o'clock, when the GRESHAM PRIZE MEDAL, awarded for the best Composition in SACRED VOCAL MUSIC, will be presented to the successful Candidate, and a Public Performance of the Anthem will take place.  
Tickets will be issued by Smith & Elder, 63, Cornhill; and J. A. Novello, 6a, Dean-street, Soho. Any surplus that may remain, after the payment of expenses, will be appropriated towards the Restoration of Crosby Hall.

ANTIEN CONCERTS.—The further we advance in the season, as far as concerns these Concerts, the more emphatically are we reminded that the besetting temptation of old age is to sink into dotage. What else but such a tendency,—it would seem an inevitable one,—can account for the strange defects which make these meetings so dreary where they might be so delightful? We speak not of the selection of the



music, but of its mode of performance; and really, so far from the old masters finding the utmost honour in this venerable establishment, their shades (could they rise again) would have a right to complain of their great works being rather disparaged than exalted in the eyes of a younger generation, by offering them to the public in a stupidly literal mode, which it is impossible could have been their intention, — the fashion of the Antient Concerts being to make music plod where it should flow along, and voices strain themselves to a monotonous force, in defiance of the lights and shades, the risings and fallings, suggested to them by the composer. Yet more—even this is not perfectly accomplished; the soulless automaton, (such as the orchestra and chorus of this establishment must be called, under the hands of its present conductor,) performs its work lazily and irregularly; often, on Wednesday evening, we had the organ half a note before the voices, then again the voices as much before the organ, and more than once everything went out of time by common consent. Our remarks are the inevitable consequence of a comparison between the choruses of 'Solomon,' and the one from 'Israel in Egypt,' as here got through, and the same as sung at Exeter Hall, — with the disadvantage, on the side of the latter meeting, of a bad music room, and amateurs in the place of professionals. Those from 'Solomon,' given on Wednesday, were the series of descriptive choruses — Mr. Braham taking the solos; (he afterwards sang 'Total eclipse' with all his old poetry of style—alas! for the voice that was); Miss Dickens then sang 'With thee th' unsheltered moor'; this young lady ought not to be forced into a situation enjoining such strict criticism as must attend an appearance in this classical orchestra. We pass the glee in which she bore a part, and Mr. Phillips's song from 'Orlando,' (of the choruses we have spoken *en masse*), to come to Madame Caradori's *bravura*, 'Son qual nave,' (Farinelli's favourite song), in which she did her utmost: the aria by Paisiello, which opened the second act, and was also sung by her, is too much in the old *mocking-bird* style to be agreeable to our ears. We pass, too, the trio by Righini, to conclude our notice, after so much well-merited objection, with our warm commendations to Mrs. A. Shaw, for her delivery of the grand *scena* from Sarti's 'Giulio Sabino.' Let her only not be afraid of giving full way to the passion of her music, (on Wednesday she was hampered by the wooden inflexibility of the orchestra,) and she may rise as high as any declamatory singer of any day past or present. This Concert was under the Earl of Cawdor's direction.

**PHILHARMONIC SOCIETY.**—These Concerts, it cannot be denied, are in a flagging state. The discourtesy of M. Laporte, (and such we cannot but consider his refusal to acquiesce in the engagement of the Italian *corps* at those regular establishments, which could not change their present location till the close of the season,) precludes the Directors from giving their subscribers the usual treat of the best singers now in London; and they have not, as yet, met the difficulty with the energy and diligence which might have been expected from them. The concert on Monday evening was a thoroughly dull one: the opening symphony ought assuredly never to have been heard, except at a trial meeting; and we were the more disappointed in it, from having heard its composer, Lachner, mentioned as a young writer from whom good things were to be expected. The work in question was at once dry and trivial; the *allegro* wrought up with passages so threadbare, as now almost to be rejected by the most superficial manufacturer of mere *finger-music*; the slow movement was insipid; the *scherzo* a bald display of science, employed upon an unattractive subject. Mozart's Sinfonia in D came upon the ear with double its usual beauty after the above. The overtures were Cherubini's 'Faniska,' and Weber's delightful and characteristic preface to 'Preciosa.' The instrumental solos were taken by Mr. W. S. Bennett, who repeated the piano-forte Concerto in c minor, which he had previously produced at the Concerts of the British Musicians, and by M. Lipinski, upon the violin. This gentleman belongs to the new school, and possesses a clear and brilliant articulation, and a tone which is to De Beriot's precisely what the Bristol stone is to the real brilliant. His military

Concerto, a somewhat flimsy composition of his own, was received with great applause. The singers who appeared were Miss Birch, Mrs. Bishop, and Mr. J. Bennett; the first did herself the utmost credit in Cherubini's 'Ave Maria,' and joined with the other artists in a somewhat dreary tertzett from Spohr's 'Jessonda.' Mr. Bennett also sung a polacca from the same opera with great care; he is, however, by much the most successful in music of a slower time and a smoother character. Mrs. Bishop gave us Beethoven's 'Ah perfido,' with her usual taste and spirit. Mr. F. Cramer led.—Mr. T. Cooke conducted the orchestra; and Madame de Beriot (so is Malibran now styled) and her husband, and M. Thalberg, were among the audience—the lady an object of universal interest and observation.

## MISCELLANEA

**Valuable MSS. used as Materials for Cartridges.**—The Baron de Joursanvault's father was indefatigable in collecting ancient MSS. wherever he could find them. At the commencement of the French Revolution, he obtained a great many by persuading the mob that parchment was a bad material to make cartridges with. He also purchased many valuable documents relating to English history (now said to be deposited in the British Museum), which came from the Garde Meuble at Paris, where the Archives of France, during the rule of the English, were preserved; most of the records there being thrown out of the windows by the mob in 1789 (vide British Museum Evidence, No. 1411). The Joursanvault collection of charters, &c., relating to the Earls of Blois, says Sir Henry Ellis, "is a most extraordinary one of its kind, and would be a treasure in the stores of the British Museum, or any other collection." (Appendix, p. 434.) Why then did not the Trustees take efficient measures to secure it for the National Depository?

**Translations from the English.**—We, some time back, noticed the enterprise of M. O'Sullivan, Professor of the Royal College of St. Louis, and editor of the *Bibliothèque Anglo-Française*. The first volume has appeared, and contains three of Shakespeare's plays, translation and original on opposite pages. They are, 'Richard the Second,' by M. Mennechet, 'Romeo and Juliet,' by M. Philaret Chasles, and 'The Merchant of Venice,' by M. Lebas. Each play is preceded by an historical and critical notice, by M. O'Sullivan, and an analysis of the imitations which have been made in French. Two other volumes of this work are in the press: the one composed of the poetical *chefs-d'œuvre* of Moore, translated by Madame L. Sw. Belloc, preceded by a biographical notice of the English author, and an essay on the ancient music and poetry of Ireland, concluding with the music and words of the most esteemed of the Irish melodies. The other volume is devoted to 'Paradise Lost,' translated by M. de Pongerville, and an essay on the life and writings of Milton, by MM. Cocquerel, De Pongerville, and O'Sullivan.

**Oriental Manuscripts.**—The learned Baron Schilling has presented to the French Institute, a collection of works from Thibet and Mongolia, found by him in 1830 and 1831, during his travels on the Chinese frontier. There are five cases full, and, among other subjects, they treat of metaphysics, etymology and orthography, astronomy, medicine, religion, and philosophy.

**Religious Publications in France.**—It appears by the *Univers Religieux*, that of the publications in France during 1855, there were a large majority of religious books. The total number of works is said to have been 4656.

**Railroads Abroad.**—We learn from the Italian journals, that the preparatory arrangements have been made for a railroad between Venice and Milan, and that the plan is likely to be successful, as the undertaking excites considerable interest, and has the sanction of the government. The first iron railroad will shortly be commenced at St. Petersburg, the necessary authority for the undertaking having been accorded by the Emperor.

**Diamonds.**—A. M. Perrot, of the Royal Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, after a careful examination of perfect and imperfect diamonds, is of

opinion, that they are formed by some volcanic action on small pieces of carbon, or of a substance composed of a large portion of carbon, and a very small quantity of hydrogen.

**Iceland.**—In the bulletin of the Geological Society of France, is a very interesting report, by M. Eugène Robert, the fellow traveller of M. Gaimard, concerning the geology of Iceland. It is much too long for insertion here, but we extract one or two passages:—"On arriving at Reykiavik, where the snow still laid upon the ground, the sides of the Essia chain of mountains were before us, and we thought we saw them covered with green turf, which singularly contrasted with the snow on our feet; on inspection, however, we found, that this remarkable colour arose from the green wakke, of which these mountains are chiefly composed. \* \* The warm springs of Lauganes, near Reykiavik, are equal in temperature to that of boiling water. These springs are intermittent, like the Geysers, and also deposit silix in a gelatinous form, which immediately hardens on leaving the spring, and assumes the blue colour so often seen in agates. \* \* The stream of stony lava, at Hapneford, is remarkable for the enormous cavities which it has formed in cooling, and which the Icelanders convert into stables and sheep-folds. Its surface, covered with sharp asperities, is not less curious for its sudden elevations, which occasionally rise abruptly, like the sides of a wall."—With respect to the celebrated Geysers, M. Robert says—"We only saw the great Geyser shoot forth in the wheatsheaf form, which is the highest; but we think there has been some mistake in the heights ascribed to it, and which, in our opinion, never amount to more than from 80 to 100 feet. In this we are confirmed by the inhabitants themselves. There seems to be a close connexion between the great Geyser and the Strokur, for they generally flow at the same periods, although alternately. When to the windward of the Geysers, we smelt a faint odour of sulphur of hydrogen, which becomes much stronger in water that has been kept in bottles. In an extent of siliceous deposit of four leagues, we were able to observe this substance in all its forms, from the friable to the most translucent and compact state; and we saw, not only impressions of birch leaves, equisetaceae, and various grasses, but, more particularly, the stems of birch trees, greatly resembling our agatized woods. Not one of this species now grows in the island, and, it is supposed, that the gradual invasion of the silix has destroyed them. The numerous springs of warm water all occupy extensive valleys in the interior of the island, and are bordered by phonolite. We should say, from observing these valleys, that they issue from fissures connected with a volcanic centre, where they acquire the high temperature and peculiar properties which distinguish them. Their ascensions are never more beautiful than when heavy rains have inundated the valleys."

**American Publications in the year 1855.**—exclusive of pamphlets, periodicals, and new editions. The first column shows the original American works:—the second foreign works reprinted.

Subjects.	Amer.	For.	Total.
Biography .....	19	11	30
History .....	4	8	12
Voyages and Travels .....	12	11	23
Statistics—Commerce .....	9	2	11
Theology—Divinity .....	20	22	42
Relig. and Domestic Duties .....	15	13	28
Miscellany .....	24	10	34
Annals .....	10	10	20
Ethics—Politics .....	6	3	9
Law .....	9	3	12
Medicine, Surgery, &c. ....	6	5	11
Sciences and Arts .....	15	8	23
Novels and Tales .....	31	33	64
Poetry .....	7	12	19
Education .....	60	15	75
Juveniles .....	22	17	39
	268	173	441

Summary of American publications for three successive years, showing the number of different volumes printed for the first time.

	Originals.	Reprints.	Total.
1853 .....	306	400	715
1854 .....	406	216	622
1855 .....	318	229	547
	1030	854	1884

New York Booksellers' Advertiser.

## ADVERTISEMENTS

**ARTISTS' BENEVOLENT FUND.** Under the Patronage of the King. Established 1810. Incorporated by Royal Charter, August 3, 1827. **THE TWENTY-SEVENTH ANNIVERSARY DINNER** will take place in FREEMASONS' HALL, on SATURDAY, the 7th May. The Right Hon. LORD ASHBURTON in the Chair.

The Right Hon. the Earl of | Richard Lloyd, Esq.  
Randolph. | James Lahee, Esq.  
Robert W. Buss, Esq. | Richard Law, Esq.  
William B. Cooke, Esq. | H. Patrick, Esq.  
T. S. Engleheart, Esq. | P. H. Rogers, Esq.  
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Barlow Hoy, Esq. M.P. | John William Wright, Esq.  
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